READ'S SALESMANSHIP

LYONS and CARNAHAN

Antonyms
Synonyms Thy speach betrayeth thee.

Page 124 - 189

Command him who with aid and encouragement of friends succeeds but ~~the man~~ to be admired is the one who succeeds in spite of hell.

1194

There is a divinity that shapes our ends rough hew them how we will.

There is no doubt in my mind but that each mans work is born with him

a merry heart doeth good like a medicine.

Godliness with contentment is great gain.

Phone Room) Route 250
from N. Phila.

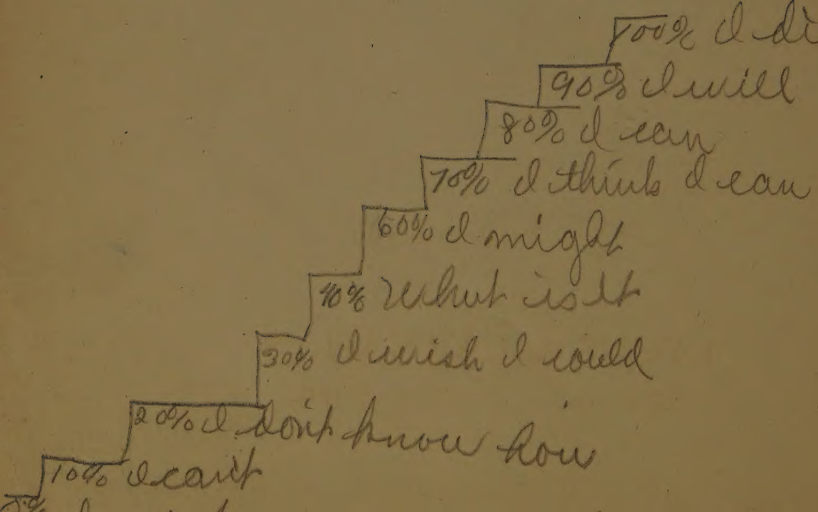
Tradition is the enemy of progress.

No being can be great without making himself "risk."

Mildred H. Dittis
A. H. S.
Assembly Room 205

5-15-
38-3-47

Bells secret of self education - Assem


100% I did.
90% I will
80% I can
70% I think I can
60% I might
50% What is it
30% I wish I could
20% I don't know how
10% I can't

READ'S SALESMANSHIP

BY
HARLAN EUGENE READ

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PREFACE

In *Read's Salesmanship,* the following characteristics are prominent:

1. The course is especially prepared for students of the commercial branches.

2. It is a short course and should occupy the time of one recitation period a day for each lesson.

3. It is for young women as well as young men.

4. It develops the idea that the salesmanship quality is at the foundation of all business success.

5. It shows that all people in business are selling either merchandise or services and that the study of the science of salesmanship is of supreme importance to both classes.

6. While it deals thoroughly only with salesmanship in person, it also familiarizes the student with many important phases of credits, collections, and other business topics that are related to salesmanship.

7. It gives a better opportunity for the discussion of many fundamental business principles than any other commercial subject.

8. It is a medium for the scientific study of business ethics, because it is a study of business-building in all its phases.

9. It forms an almost indispensable basis for the writing of business letters of life and originality, with selling power, because it puts business-getting ideas into the mind of the student.

The original edition of *Read's Lessons in Salesmanship* was the first salesmanship text ever prepared for classes in the com-

mercial branches. The growth of salesmanship instruction since then, in class room and by correspondence, has been amazing. The increasingly large sales of this book attest the general conviction that the study of the subject is of great importance to business students.

In many schools where it has been taught, the business houses of the community have formed a habit of calling upon these schools for young salesmen, just as they have always called upon them for bookkeepers and stenographers.

Time has demonstrated the fact that the fundamental principles of the first edition were correct, and they have been retained as the basis of the present edition. The book has been greatly enlarged, however, and many new, practical topics have been introduced, together with illustrations that will be of great assistance in fastening the lessons in the memory of the students.

The book is so arranged as to require one recitation a day for three months, or thirteen weeks, five days a week. In schools and colleges where salesmanship is not taught daily, the time required would be proportionately more. A suggestion for lengthening the course by the addition of twenty-eight recitation periods is given at the end of the *Teachers' Guide;* and this is followed by a suggestion for shortening by the elimination of seven lessons. Thus, while the course as presented consists of sixty-five lessons, it may be lengthened to ninety-three or shortened to fifty-eight.

The added material in this new edition deals with the study of salesmanship projects. It is designed to enlarge the vision of the student by showing him the relation between salesmanship and business organization. In these new lessons, he becomes a part of the business he represents, learns to see the bearing of salesmanship upon the formation of an organization, upon the manufacturing plans of a company, upon the expense budget—in short, upon every other important branch of the business.

The exercises for the student have been prepared with special reference to their practical value in enabling him to develop his powers, rather than as "questions on the lessons."

HARLAN EUGENE READ

April, 1925.

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PART I

PSYCHOLOGY IN SALESMANSHIP

LESSON 1

IMPORTANCE OF SALESMANSHIP

Salesmanship is the art of selling goods or services at a profit.

All business enterprises depend for their success upon the ability of those who undertake to dispose of the product for sale. This is being recognized today as never before in the world's history.

There was a time when transportation facilities were so restricted and competition so limited that men and women "went to market" to buy whatever they had need of. But today trains, mail service, delivery boys, mail order publications, and the many other facilities of advertising, transportation, and correspondence which enable men to do business from afar, have limited the number of customers who are willing to hunt up a dealer, because they have made it so easy for the dealer to hunt up the customer.

Fully three-fourths of the letters written today are letters written for the purpose of selling goods. And, while exact figures are not available, it is safe to say that the great majority of goods that are sold today are sold by salesmen who go to their customers rather than by salesmen whose customers come to them. This is another reason for the increased importance of the salesman.

Different Kinds of Salesmanship

But even with this statement of the importance of salesmanship to business enterprises, one is not likely to have any adequate appreciation of this study until he contemplates the magnitude of its field.

We are accustomed to think of the science of salesmanship as applying merely to direct *personal sales* of merchandise whether the salesman goes to the customer, as in wholesale business and canvassing, or the customer comes to the salesman, as in retail business. But this is only a part of what constitutes salesmanship. *Salesmanship by correspondence* and *Salesmanship by advertising* are tremendous fields.

All Occupations Require the "Salesmanship" Quality

The above has to do with the sale of merchandise, but salesmanship cannot be limited to this department of business, for every man engaged either in a profession or a trade is a salesman. The employe sells his services to his employer. Two men forming an equal partnership sell their services to each other. The doctor, the lawyer, and even the preacher, is a salesman. He has certain information or skill to dispose of, and, if he could find no purchaser, would soon go bankrupt.

All people are salesmen, from the humblest ditch digger to the president of the United States, who every four years conducts the most spectacular selling campaign carried on in the world. For what is the president doing but selling to the people his ability and desire to serve them? And even were there no salary attached to his office, as is frequently the case with missionaries, philanthropists, and others who serve the public, he would be a salesman just the same, for he would be engaged in the effort to dispose of his stock in trade, which, in this particular case, consists of his political opinions and his executive ability.

In short, any transaction involving an agreement between

persons calls for the exercise of salesmanship quality, always on the part of one person and frequently on the part of both.

It is only when we see salesmanship in its relation to all intercourse between men where one must convince another, that we begin to recognize it in its full dignity as a science.

So, if you have always thought of salesmanship as being necessary only to traveling men, revise your opinion. Traveling salesmen are the best salesmen, of course. They have no other business than that of selling goods. But everybody needs to know how to "talk business," and "talking business" is salesmanship.

Our course in Salesmanship teaches the student:

How to improve his personality
How to study his goods
How to analyze his customer
How to present a proposition
How to gain an audience
How to get the attention of the buyer
How to arouse interest
How to awaken desire
How to close a deal
How to handle an old customer
How to interest new customers

And it adds to the above many vital facts about credits, collections, advertising, commercial customs, etc., that every student of business should know.

Increased Dignity of Salesmanship in Recent Years

The average person's mental picture of a salesman used to be that of a beefy, overdressed individual, flashily decked out in jewelry too large for good taste. He was pictured as loud in speech as well as in dress, was never to be seen without a huge cigar in his mouth, and was supposed to be invariably an inordinate drinker.

Also there was a popular conception of another kind of salesman doing business at the sign of three balls, who lay in wait for the passer-by, seized him by the arm, and dragged him into his store. This salesman always cheated his customer, and short-changed him if possible.

If you have this erroneous idea of what a salesman is, you must correct it and remove from your mind the prejudice it causes.

There are few occupations today that require a clearer brain, a more vigorous energy, and a more careful study of conditions and facts, than the business of a salesman. His art is not that of mere chance or genius, but the result of study and effort; and the "rules of the game" have become so firmly fixed in the business world that we have learned to analyze them, and to classify them for study.

As men have begun to realize the business importance of salesmanship and the magnitude of its field in commercial life, the art of selling has taken on an increased dignity.

This dignity is measured chiefly, in the first place, by money, for the salesman's salary is a good one. It is also measured by the importance that owners and proprietors now attach to the work that is done by their salesmen.

The days of the "hot-sport" salesman have passed away. The day of the "good-fellow" salesman, in the objectionable sense of the word, is also departing. Chief of all, as the value of established business becomes more and more apparent, the salesman who is a trickster and a confidence man is gradually dropping out of the ranks.

Success Requires Study

In short, the salesman's business has become a more dignified and, in every way but one, a more comfortable business. The salesman is called upon today to do harder work intellectually than he has ever done before. He has found it to his advantage to be the best informed man in his line of business, in many

of its details, and especially in those details that refer to the general trend of the markets, the fashions, and the outside world generally.

He is not only the weathervane of the business—he is the thermometer.

The intelligence and skill of the sales force is the deciding factor in the success or failure of many a business.

Gradually but surely the standing of a commercial establishment comes to be measured by the reputation, skill, and business enterprise of its representatives on the road.

The Demand for Capable Salesmen

A brief investigation in any city where goods are sold at retail will convince you of the importance of salesmen numerically. It is not an unusual thing to find manufacturing firms employing 50 or 60 salesmen, with not more than 200 or 300 workmen. In some businesses, especially in those where goods are sold by canvassers, solicitors, and agents, the number of the sales-force will far exceed the number of all the other employes of the house combined.

The demand for competent salesmen is far greater than the supply.

All these things will be mentioned in considerable detail throughout the course of lessons. Your attention is merely called to them here so that you can see in the very beginning of your study that it is a matter of great importance to you to take it up thoroughly and to let no opportunity slip to develop yourself along the lines that will be suggested throughout the course.

It is far easier for a salesman worth $100.00 a week to get it than it is for one worth $15.00 a week to get that. In other words, the great demand of the hour is for trained, scientific workers.

The manager of one of the world's largest employment bureaus said recently, "We come into communication with both

the employer and the employe. The uniform rule is that the employers who need our services most are those who are looking for high-grade help, while the employes who come to us most often for assistance are those who are incapable of holding responsible positions on account of a lack of education and of character. If we fail to bring employers and men together, which is not so common nowadays as it was ten or twelve years ago, it is because the applicant does not possess the necessary education or character."

The call for help is loudest where it is hardest to make men hear. If you want a hundred men to work at ordinary labor for $2 a day, it is only necessary to put a three-line want ad in a big city paper, and 200 men who can answer your requirements will be at your door within an hour after the paper has been issued. If you want one man to take charge of a big sales department at $15,000 a year, you may have to look a long time before you find him. Expensive men who are worth the money are hard to find.

The reason for this peculiar situation is that most men and women do not realize the value of education, especially business education, until they believe it to be too late for it to be secured; and then, instead of attempting to mend matters by study, they simply fold their hands and give up trying, so far as learning is concerned.

It is the ability to hear the "call for help" that comes constantly from those who are looking for the higher class of helpers which distinguishes the ambitious young person from the one who is doomed to failure in later life. If the young man and woman of today is able to hear this call a few years in advance, and prepare for it, success will be the sure result.

Salesmanship Can Be Learned

A statement frequently heard is that the salesman is "natural born," and that instruction in such an art is like teaching music to animals—as if one should claim that much learning

could alter the voice of a donkey or do anything but injure the sweet throat of a nightingale.

Of course, salesmanship depends upon personality; but personality can be improved. Otherwise today we should all be barbarians.

Suppose we admit, for the sake of discussion only, that the closing of a sale depends upon the influence of personality. Is it not true that the strength of this influence is increased the more a man understands himself, his customer, and his proposition?

We have heard a great deal about "natural born" orators who arise on great occasions and charm vast multitudes with native eloquence that rolls unhindered from the tongue. But what are the historical facts? Demosthenes, Cicero, Brutus, Daniel O'Connell, Mirabeau, Patrick Henry, Daniel Webster, and Henry Clay were men who toiled unceasingly in advance upon the speeches that made them great—and William J. Bryan, who will go down in history as the greatest orator of our times, at first learned his greatest speeches almost verbatim.

The "natural-born" salesman is similarly misrepresented.

What he seems to say spontaneously he has thought out, often, years in advance.

What appears to us to be the unstudied eloquence of nature, has really cost sweat and blood and tears, the result of a lifetime of careful study of the working of the minds of men.

This course in salesmanship merely condenses and arranges for convenient study the experience and wisdom of hundreds of such men, and presents to the student precisely the same material he would gather from the personal counsel of great and successful salesmen.

He who believes that all selling power depends upon personality is grievously in error; but he who denies the power of man to improve his selling power by improving his personality is also in error.

The proposition that one not qualified by nature should undertake the business of salesmanship is absurd in the extreme.

No man should take up any business for which he is not qualified. But there exists a terrible lack of comprehension as to what the real requirements of a salesman are. One of the chief purposes of this course is to call the attention of the student to the exact nature of these requirements and to show him plainly that the true salesman is a fighter and a pusher, not necessarily a talker.

Summing up the statement that the art of salesmanship can be acquired, we have the following:

1. Salesmanship requires certain physical, mental, and moral qualities.

2. Every living person (not insane) has these qualities in either great or small degree.

3. These qualities can be developed by certain exercises.

4. These lessons in salesmanship can tell you what those exercises are and how to develop the will power to perform them.

5. When performed they will inevitably lead you into better salesmanship ability and stronger personal power.

Every salesman who listens to the story of another salesman's success or failure and gathers something of benefit to himself from it is studying salesmanship.

Every salesman who makes notations, either on paper or in his memory, concerning his own failures or successes, is deep in the study of salesmanship.

Every salesman who goes over in his mind what he will say "next time" to a customer, is preparing himself for success through study.

Every salesman who reads an article or listens to a speech on how to increase sales, is a student, just as certainly as he would be if he were pursuing this course of study.

But if he pursues his studies in a loose, disjointed way, he is missing the chief advantage of study, which should lie in thoroughness and completeness. He is merely picking up a pebble here and there on the sea-shore, examining it and casting it aside. The true student, assembling before him, with the aid

of a skilled scientist, a hundred pebbles that represent the approximate limit of possible varieties, studies each and all, learns them separately and in their relation to each other, and is thereby prepared to instantly analyze and use each specimen that is thereafter brought to him.

Great Companies That Teach Salesmanship

The statement that salesmanship can be learned is not merely a theory. Many of the great manufacturing concerns of the country are teaching the science of salesmanship to their men in regularly organized classes.

The National Cash Register Company, of Dayton, O., conducts a school with the work of which most business men are familiar, competitors being especially so, to their cost.

The John Wanamaker School in Salesmanship for the Wanamaker clerks has had a significant bearing upon the success of one of America's greatest retail stores.

Underwood and Underwood, the world's most famous photographers, whose stereographs of men and scenes are to be seen by hundreds in every county and shire in North America and Europe, will not permit salesmen to enter upon their work without the special training they offer, and like the National Cash Register Company, they give a splendid course.

The Avery Company of Peoria, the Rock Falls Manufacturing Company of Rock Falls, Ill., the National Manufacturing Company of Sterling, Ill., the Baker-Vawter Company of Boston, the Kingman Plow Company of Peoria, the Smith Premier Typewriting Company, and the Remington Typewriter Company, are a representative few of the hundreds of leading manufacturers who teach Salesmanship to their business-bringers.

Almost any reader can add several to the list from his own neighborhood, and these will almost invariably be found to be the most aggressive and prosperous concerns of the community. In 1915 there were about 150 Corporation Schools teaching salesmanship. House organs and sales manuals of scores of

firms and corporations are devoted largely and often entirely to the problems of selling.

In addition to the approval given by great firms such as those mentioned above, thousands of expert salesmen are today expressing their approval of the study of scientific salesmanship. A skilled teacher of salesmanship recently said, "If I had a dollar for every time any one has said to me, 'You can't teach salesmanship except by experience,' I would have no excuse for working any longer other than affection for labor; but if I had only a dollar for every time a skilled salesman has told me that, I would starve to death."

Men whose opinions count—men who know—are saying today, as never before, that salesmanship can be taught.

The "ayes" come with great vigor and enthusiasm from salesmen who are earning from two to ten thousand dollars a year. The "nays" come with loud reports from men who never sold even a collar button.

Knowledge of Salesmanship Necessary for Self-Defense

A thorough knowledge of salesmanship is necessary if only for self-protection.

Many people fail in business because they buy so many hundreds of things they do not need. A good salesman can sell anything. This is a fact because there are always some people who can be induced to buy anything.

One of the most valuable qualities the student can acquire is to be able to say "no" to the skillful entreaties of the smooth-talking salesman.

In order to meet these men on their own grounds, one must be a skilled salesman himself.

There are some people who can place no limit to their buying except the bottom of their bank account. Such people as this need to learn how to protect themselves.

This is one of the important reasons why all students of business should include a good course in salesmanship among their studies.

A Fighter's Job

In all probability, Demosthenes would not have made so good a salesman as Leonidas. Daniel Webster would not have made so good a salesman as General Grant. Selling is a fighter's job, not an orator's pastime. It is a calling that requires those sterling elements of character that any man can cultivate, if he is willing to diligently make the attempt and work faithfully along the lines to be suggested in our lessons.

A Salesman a Producer

Every employe of a firm costs that firm money, both for his salary and for any incidental expenses he may incur. But there are some employes who bring into a business a positive revenue, while there are others whose names appear on the expense side of the cash book only; that is to say, in every large business there are some employes who can be classed as producers and others as spenders.

Among those who produce nothing but expense are to be included the office managers, the bookkeepers, the stenographers, the shipping clerks, the janitors, etc. In fact, almost every employe is on this side except the salesman.

The salesman stands practically alone as the man who brings in money.

He is the business producer.

Of course the work of all the spenders is absolutely necessary. There are certain things that must be done, certain expenses that must be met in order to keep the business running, but it is found in almost every business that the effort of the management is to cut down the expenses everywhere possible when there is no revenue brought in, whereas almost all progressive houses have an exceedingly liberal policy with regard to the salaries and expenses of those employes who are business producers.

The deduction is very natural that the most independent and

valuable employe of a firm is he who is able to produce business for that firm. This man is the salesman.

Preparation for Selling

Why is it that a man is willing to spend four years in a college and three years in a medical school to prepare to become a doctor, seven to prepare to be a lawyer, seven to prepare to become a preacher, four to become a civil engineer, two to be-

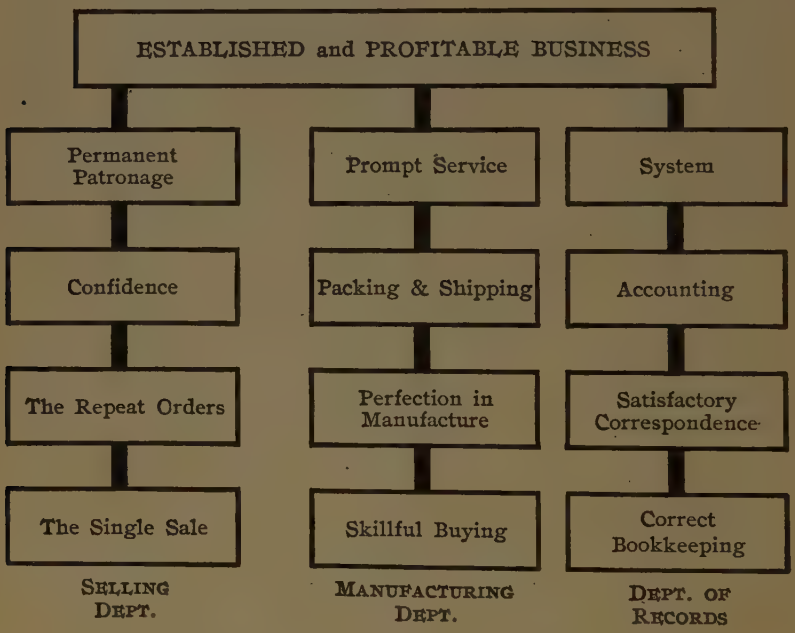


FIGURE 1. ORGANIZATION DIAGRAM.

come an accountant, seven or eight months to become a skilled bookkeeper or stenographer—while until recently the farmer and the salesman, the two most important business men in the world, have thought it unnecessary to have any special scientific training at all?

The farmer used to think it was sufficient to buy a plow and get busy.

The salesman used to seize a grip and start out.

A boy whose father prepared for the law for seven years before his first case, would object to spending even a week preparing to sell goods, and expect to make more money than his father!

Why was this true?

It was because the farm and the selling department are such rich mines for profit that it wasn't considered necessary to "waste" time learning to farm or to sell!

And the green salesman never stopped to consider that science could make him a skilled worker in two or three years, while experience—the most expensive teacher in the world—would require twenty or thirty years!

The diagram on page 20 indicates the three pillars of business,—its three great departments. Reading from left to right, and from the bottom up, selling comes first. You must sell or you cannot manufacture. Records come last. If you have not sold and manufactured you have no records to keep.

Student's Exercise for Lesson 1

The student will be required daily to write an exercise based upon the lesson he has just studied, and then to prepare the lesson for the next day.

The lessons and exercises have been prepared for students of commercial subjects with this in view; this instruction applies to nearly all of the fifty lessons and need not be given again.

As an exercise for this lesson, write a composition consisting of ten sentences, each in a separate paragraph, answering the following questions. Do not number your replies, but simply answer the questions in the order given, in complete sentences, and you will find that you have written an essay on the study of salesmanship. It should not exceed two hundred words.

1. What is salesmanship?
2. Name three kinds of salesmanship.
3. Why is salesmanship valuable?

FIGURE 2. THE NERVOUS SYSTEM.

4. What do people sell besides merchandise?
5. What is the advantage in studying salesmanship?
6. Why is it easier for a competent salesman to get a position than for an incompetent one, even at a higher salary?
7. Is the salesman a producer or a spender?
8. Why should a salesman be willing to spend a long time preparing to sell goods?
9. Why is salesmanship important to one who expects to sell his services?
10. Why is salesmanship the most important element in business?

FIGURE 3. LOCALIZATION OF THE FUNCTIONS OF THE BRAIN.

LESSON 2

PSYCHOLOGY IN SALESMANSHIP

Salesmanship is a mental process.

You cannot use physical force on a buyer.

Neither can you hypnotize him.

You must realize primarily that the sale must take place first, in the mind of the salesman, second, in the mind of the buyer, third, on the order blank or in the agreement reached.

To get the sale into your mind (the salesman) requires a thorough knowledge of your goods, your house, and all the

technical facts of your business, supported by a supreme confidence in the service you are rendering.

To get the same thing into the buyer's mind involves a study of psychology. Psychology is the study of the mind. You must learn how minds operate—your mind and his mind. This is the beginning of power in salesmanship.

The Brain

The brain is the seat of the mind,—the physical organ that contains it.

It is the center of the nervous system (see Figure 2), an intricate network of nerves that extend to every part of the surface of the body, like minute telegraph wires, of which the brain is the central switch-board.

Just as there are positive and negative currents in electricity, there are incoming and outgoing paths along the nerves, the incoming messages being sensations, and the outgoing ones being impulses.

All sensations come to the brain through one of the five senses, sight, hearing, touch, taste, or smell.

The paths of sensations and impulses are well known to science, in most cases, and so also are the locations of the parts of the brain that perform various functions, as shown in the illustration (Figure 3).

Moreover, these paths and the parts of the brain with which they especially communicate are definite and well-defined, and each act, motion, or thought helps to increase the ease with which the brain and nerves make use of the same path the next time it is called into service (Figure 4).

Notice that the sensation is secured by the branch point E on the switchboard (which receives messages from the eyes), and a connection is made with point A (which controls the arm). The hand is then directed to catch the ball. The brain acts like a telephone switch-board.

This is the physical reason why habits become fixed. Acts often repeated become easy of performance.

Certain acts are said to be involuntary—that is, performed without a definite exercise of the will. Such acts are called sub-conscious.

Some sub-conscious acts are performed by instinct. The tendency to perform them comes with birth, as, for instance, the

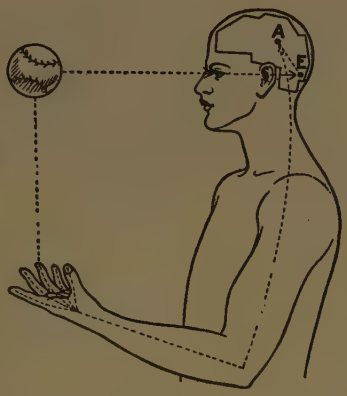


FIGURE 4. THE BRAIN A SWITCH-BOARD.

cry of the new-born babe, or the winking of an eyelid to protect it from dust.

Others are acquired by practice and habit, as the art of walking, which begins as a conscious act that the baby performs only after long deliberation, and later is performed automatically.

The illustration (Figure 5) shows a brain divided by an imaginary line separating the conscious from the under-conscious, or sub-conscious, and is intended only as an attempt to fix this difference between the "two minds" in the memory.

The conscious, or objective, division of the mind is the seat of reason and judgment. It controls our voluntary acts and gets its

information or data from the five senses, sight, hearing, touch, taste, and smell.

The sub-conscious, or subjective, division of the mind is the seat of memory and the emotions. It controls our involuntary acts, and gets its information or data from the reserve that has been stored away in it.

When we get a bit of new information, or when we think out a new combination, the constructive work is done by the conscious mind. When we act through habit, the sub-conscious mind controls.

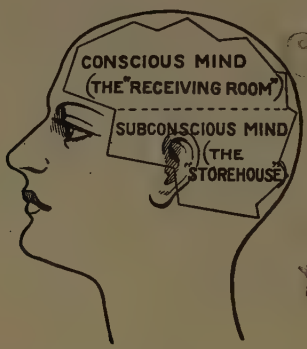


FIGURE 5. CONSCIOUS AND SUBCONSCIOUS MIND.
DIAGRAM TO ILLUSTRATE REFERENCE IN TEXT ONLY.

Hence it follows that he who can use his "store-house," or subjective mind, to greatest advantage is he who has received most ideas of value through his "receiving-room," or objective mind. Nothing we receive is ever entirely lost, hence the vast importance of coming in contact through the "receiving-room" with only those things that are valuable.

All these facts about the mind will be brought out later in their relation to salesmanship.

The object in mentioning them here is to show clearly this one principle—that action of mind and condition of body are so closely related that the cultivation of physical powers will increase

mental power, and that the scientific method of thus improving the personal efficiency of the salesman is definitely known and can be learned by any average student.

As the lessons progress you will learn specifically and definitely

1. How to analyze your powers.
2. What specific means to use to improve them.

This is the scientific basis of the study of salesmanship. Few difficult technical terms will be used, and then only when no simpler terms can be found to express them; but the student will be shown not only the scientific reason for a principle in salesmanship, but the actual details of the process of self-improvement.

Fix this in your mind, then, positively. *You can improve.* These lessons will show you how.

Psychology Applied

When a draughtsman, or civil engineer, learns certain rules of algebra or calculus it is not merely for the purpose of storing up knowledge. It is for the purpose of learning things which he can apply to his daily work. For instance, the surveyor learns what a sine and a cosine are, and how to use a table of logarithms. Then he uses that knowledge to measure the exact distance between two points across an impassable river, and in a hundred other ways.

Exactly in similar fashion the salesman learns a mental rule of suggestion, and thereby makes a sale. Or he learns how to improve his personal powers by lessons in the exercise of the eye. And so on.

Prof. Hugo Munsterberg of Harvard says, "Every experience leaves the brain altered. The nerve fibers and cells have gone into new stages of disposition for certain excitements." To learn *how* to alter your own nerve fibers and cells to make them more easily disposed to the excitation that you desire, and to learn *how* to alter the mental processes of the buyer that are opposing

your success, is the thing that makes psychology valuable to the salesman.

One of the things that gives hope and courage to men and women who study the structure of the mind, is the fact that the brain tissues may be altered with much greater ease and to a far greater extent than other bodily tissues.

Every thought wears a path in the tissues of the brain.

Constant thinking builds up the brain at a marvelous rate.

A scar on the surface of the body caused by a wound may remain for life, but when brain tissue is injured and replaced it is replaced by entirely new tissue wherein no sign of the former scar remains.

These things will all be explained in greater detail as we proceed. For the present it is sufficient for the student to realize how vitally the study of the mind affects the success of the salesman in his chosen field.

In order to indicate to the student the great scope of psychology in salesmanship, a list is presented here of some of the important topics in mind-study that will be presented later in their bearing upon salesmanship.

The five senses: How to train them.

Suggestion: Introducing a favorable thought in the buyer's mind.

Auto-suggestion: Influencing your own mind by helpful thoughts.

Attention: What it is, and the art of commanding it.

Selective attention: Why and how the mind selects certain topics.

Thinking: Analyzed as a consecutive process of

Observing
Comparing
Reasoning
Judging

Emotion or Feeling: How to arouse it in your favor.

The Will: How to compel action.

Imagination: Its value to a salesman.
Memory: How to make it serve you.
Habit: How to make it work for you rather than against you.

Exercise for Lesson 2

Answer the following questions in full sentences, giving one new paragraph to each answer, without numbering the paragraphs. When you are through you will find you have written an essay on psychology in salesmanship. Limit it to one hundred words, if possible.

1. What is psychology?
2. What is the seat of the mind?
3. Of what system is the brain the center?
4. How do sensations come to the brain?
5. What part of the brain is the seat of reason and judgment and controls our voluntary acts?
6. What part of the brain controls our involuntary acts?
7. Has the condition of the body any influence on the action of the mind?
8. Can the condition of the brain be altered?
9. Is it altered more or less easily than the condition of the body?

LESSON 3

MIND-CONTROL

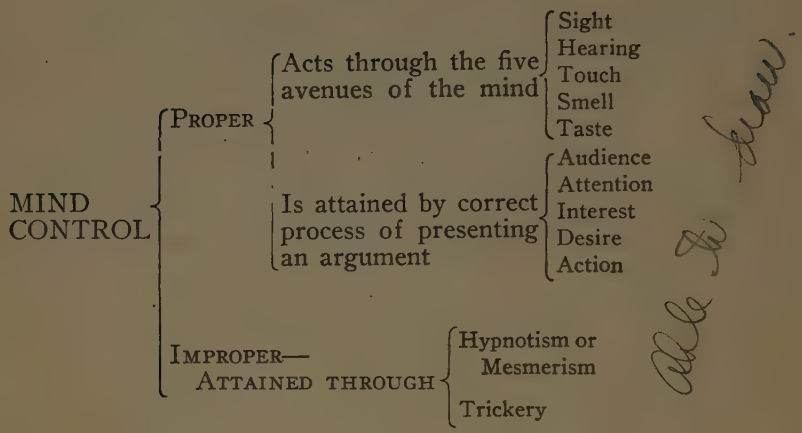
The study of mind-control is fascinating.

Nearly everyone knows that there is a certain sort of mind-control exercised by one person over another which is proper, and another sort that is improper.

This is a matter of common knowledge and common sense. There are a few, however, who stop to give the question very close analysis.

A study of the following chart will prove valuable to you before you proceed with the remainder of the lesson:

CHART ONE



Salesmanship is fundamentally a question of the influence of mind over mind.

If the salesman exercises no influence whatsoever upon the mind of his customer, but the customer does all the deciding, he is not a real salesman. He is an order taker.

There is a certain proper influence that every mind may have over every other mind. This influence arises from strong personal character, from a knowledge of goods, and from a knowledge of the science of salesmanship.

These lessons will show how this character, knowledge, and ability can be improved and strengthened by the salesman in the interest of his work.

First, let us clearly understand the distinction between proper mind-control, and hypnotism or other forms of mesmeric influence.

Proper Mind-control

The salesman who arranges his thought and presentation logically, so as to lead his customer into the proper attitude toward his goods, is well within his rights.

So, also, is he who introduces new and overwhelming arguments, and he who studies methods of so impressing his personality on a customer as to inspire confidence.

Certainly one cannot justly criticise a salesman for studying his customer's face and manner in such as way as to find out the *exact minute* when he would be most likely to consent to a purchase, or for any other studious effort to learn exactly when to urge his strongest points. The salesman must learn when his argument is at its best, and, conversely, when the customer's mind is in its most receptive condition. That is the minute for action. The salesman must be able to recognize it when it comes, and must practice every fair method of bringing it about. He must compel the buyer to minimize any objections in his mind and to become enthusiastic over the advantages that the salesman has presented.

This is proper and legitimate mind-control. It has nothing to do with hypnotism, mesmerism, making a sale to an intoxicated or demented person, or any other unfair method of taking advantage of an abnormal condition of the buyer's mind.

The following are illustrations of legitimate mind-control:

1. A salesman finds a buyer opposed to his article because he does not understand its merits. A simple explanation compels the buyer to change his mind.

2. A salesman finds that a buyer is impulsive and enthusiastic. He therefore describes his goods enthusiastically and secures the order "on the spur of the moment."

3. A salesman finds it difficult to secure the buyer's signature to an order. He watches his customer's face until it shows a keen interest, then hands him pencil and paper with a request to sign, at exactly the right moment.

4. A salesman learns that his customer is inclined to favor those salesmen for whom he has a personal friendship. He therefore cultivates a feeling of friendship between himself and his customer, and uses it to secure an order.

These are simple illustrations, but they make the meaning clear. The student will no doubt be able to add many similar

illustrations from his own knowledge or hearsay, such as the use, at the proper time, of the names of well-known purchasers, etc.

Mr. W. D. Moody, in Chapter 13 of *Men Who Sell Things,* discusses "The Mind as a Magnet." He says:

"There is no question that the power of attraction which gives one man ascendency over others can be cultivated by any one who is sufficiently persistent and painstaking in the effort. Psychologists have not given us any formula for developing this quality. Any one who is interested, however, can suggest ways and means for himself, which will help toward the desired end.

"The first step toward accomplishment in this direction is a careful study of the successful men who are described as 'born salesmen,' and who get their results by exercising this mental force. It will be found that all men possessed of personal magnetism are very much in earnest. Their intense earnestness is magnetism. Their minds are filled with one controlling idea—success in whatever undertaking they have in mind."

He enlarges on this idea for some time and then says:

"The second step toward gaining the end in view is for the salesman to put himself as far as possible in entire harmony with all the conditions under which he works. To do this, his relations with his house should be candid and agreeable; there should be no rankling remembrances of differences which he may have had with the manager or others in the house. He should have absolute faith in the product he is selling; he should feel in entire sympathy with every prospective customer with whom he talks."

He finally sums up the whole matter in the following language:

"No one should confuse the mental action described here with hypnotism. It is not recommended to make an attack on the will power of a customer, for that is neither fair play nor practical business. One can, however, develop a power to arouse the interest and good-will of others, so that they will sometimes do voluntarily what a hypnotist seeks to make them do involuntarily. Such power, when acquired, assures some measure of success at least."

The formula for developing this quality is very simple. It

is a study of the five senses and the manner in which they influence the mind, and a constant effort to apply in practice what is learned.

The Five Senses

CHART TWO

9/23

THE AVENUES TO THE MIND { SIGHT, HEARING, TOUCH, SMELL, TASTE

The student learned, in the early grades at school, that the five senses are sight, hearing, touch, smell, and taste.

These five senses may be called the avenues to the mind. It is impossible for any sensation to reach the objective mind except through one of the five senses.

The student should give some time to this thought. Classify all the facts you can know about anything. Did you see them? Did you hear them? Did you hear about them? Did you touch the object? Or taste it? Or smell it? Is there anything you ever learned or could learn, except through one of these five avenues to the mind? Memory connects the mind with the past; imagination, with the future; but memory and imagination cannot grasp any impression except through its association with one of the five senses.

Imagination, like memory, is bound hand and foot by the experiences and sensations that have approached the royal throne of the mind through its five avenues, though the combinations of the sense impressions may be, and usually are, new.

With this thought in mind, we see that, in learning to control the mind of the buyer, it is essential that the salesman learn to appeal to each of the five senses successfully and to cultivate his own by practical exercises.

Student's Exercise for Lesson 3

Write an essay of not more than 200 words, by answering the following in complete sentences.

What is proper mind control? Give an illustration. What is hypnotism? What is the best method of developing personal magnetism? Name the five senses. Why are they called the "Avenues to the Mind"?

LESSON 4

MIND CULTIVATION

Exercises to Train the Senses

In all sense training the method used is to improve each one of the five senses by specific exercises.

The most common evidence that this method is a correct one is found in the success with which those who lack one of the senses are trained to greater expertness in the use of others.

The blind are infinitely better in their sense of hearing and feeling, tasting, and smelling than they would otherwise be, because the lack of sight compels them to rely upon their other senses. The deaf correspondingly have keener sight, feeling, taste, and smell, except, of course, when their deafness is caused by a physical ailment that has injured their other senses as well.

Cases have been known where persons deprived of sight and hearing could detect the presence of other persons, animals, and many objects by the sense of smell, and it is well known that the blind can feel the presence of persons through air pressure and very slight disturbances of the air, due to the motion of those who pass them or whom they pass.

For the salesman the point is this: Each one of the five senses can be cultivated by specific exercises.

The cultivation of any one of the five senses depends upon three things: First, the general physical condition of the person; second, attention of the will; and third, specific exercises.

It should also be observed that the training of one of the senses increases the capacity of the others. Men who are hard of hearing look closely at the speaker to read his lips and this very process adds to the keenness of hearing.

A man who cannot see a distant object distinctly, listens to another person describe it, in order to assist the eye to see the thing that he knows is there.

Exercises improving one mental or physical quality will exercise a beneficial influence over others.

E. W. Scripture says in *Thinking, Willing, Doing,* "In the experiments referred to, the greatest possible effort in gripping was made on the first day with the left hand singly, and then with the right hand, ten times each. The records were, for the left, fifteen pounds, and for the right, fifteen pounds. Thereafter the right hand alone was practiced nearly every day for eleven days, while the left hand was not used. The right hand gained steadily day by day. On the twelfth day it recorded a grip of twenty-five pounds. The left hand recorded, on the same day, a grip of twenty-one pounds. Thus the left hand had gained six pounds, or more than one-third, *by the practice of the other hand.*"

This illustrates the principle that every effort at self-development increases all the related powers of the body or mind. It is a scientific fact that has the greatest encouragement for all who are endeavoring to increase their personal power.

In the cultivation of each one of the five senses, just as in the cultivation of the character qualities which have already been studied, the object of the student should be to improve the work of each as to its quantity, quality, time (speed), and mode of use.

Sight

In selling merchandise, a strong appeal may be made to the sense of sight. The wares displayed must be clean, attractive to the eye, and well arranged for display. Dirty, mussed-up samples are likely to do the salesman more harm than good.

The importance of this is well illustrated in the sale of expensive and valuable articles, such as jewelry, in which great care is taken to make an attractive display. But this should not be confined to expensive articles only. Even the cheapest, most inferior article should be displayed as attractively as the salesman knows how.

The salesman should learn that the personal impression that he creates depends largely upon the same thing. He must be so dressed and groomed that he cannot fail to make a pleasant impression. He must have an agreeable expression upon his face, and on the other hand he must not overdo matters by being over-dressed or hypocritically polite.

The salesman must not only influence the buyer through the sense of sight, but he must cultivate his own sense of sight in such a positive way as to make careful observations of what he sees. You will see that the rule works both ways. Not only can the salesman influence his customer, but he can help himself by giving careful study to the sense of sight and how he can serve it or make it serve him.

The eye is in many respects the most wonderful of the senses. With a single glance it can follow the course of a shooting star for millions of miles and with a single glance, even without a microscope, it can see objects so small that all the other senses would be incapable of perceiving them. Millions of objects that can be neither heard, felt, tasted, nor smelled can be plainly seen. The eye is the window of the soul. It receives a far greater multitude of impressions than any other sense organ except touch and gives out in due proportion a large variety of emotions.

Exercises for the Eye

In these and all following exercises the following rule applies: They must be repeated daily for no less than five days to secure any valuable result whatever, and thereafter may be repeated as long as good results are being secured. They take the place of the written exercises for this and the next two lessons.

Exercise One. Exactness

To improve your exactness, select some one object now before you, a book, a chair, or a tree. Look at it thoroughly for several minutes, not allowing the mind to wander. How long is it? How deep? What color? What shape is it? What are its peculiarities? Close your eyes and see if you can recall each one of these points. Describe it orally. If you are skillful with a pencil, draw it.

Leave it and at the end of the day recall and describe it.

On the next day return to it and make further observations. See what you missed the day before.

No matter how simple the object is, go into the minutest details in this exercise. Repeat it daily and, by the end of the fifth day, you will be surprised at what you failed to see on the first day.

Exercise Two. Quickness

The following exercise is to cultivate the speed with which you can use the eye. Enter a room with the exact contents of which you are unfamiliar. Give yourself precisely ten seconds to glance around it, noting all the objects you see; or have a group of objects placed on a table. Retire from the room and repeat them from memory or, better still, write them on a piece of paper.

Repeat daily for five days and then on the sixth day try the same experiment in a different room with different objects and note the improvement in your ability.

The same experiment can be performed in the matter of counting a large number of objects all similar, as for instance, a handful of marbles, or matches, to be counted with a single glance occupying less than a second. You will notice an increasing ability to perceive an increasing number at a single glance as you proceed with the exercise.

Another variation of the same exercise is to take a brisk walk of a block and at the end of it enumerate the various objects that you have seen, not counting houses, trees, and other common objects.

Exercise Three. Range of Vision

Some people are more far-sighted than others and you can not fairly compare yourself with other people, but you can readily compare yourself today with yourself tomorrow, in the following exercises:

Stand on an elevation where you can see a considerable distance, say half a mile, and note how many objects you can see at that distance. Repeat at the same spot for five days and select a different spot for the sixth day.

Any marked improvement along this line will require a much longer time than in exercises one and two, but it is well known that sailors who

are accustomed to see long distances on the water and others whose occupations require much improvement in vision can, in the course of a few years, attain a perfection that is really marvelous.

A good variation of this exercise is to increase the distance each day between yourself and the object that you select, measuring the improvement in your range of vision by the distance you stand away from the object.

Exercise Four. Capacity of Vision

The eye is focused directly upon only one minute point at a time, but hundreds of other objects in the same room or in the same general location make the observer aware of their presence, and strong impressions are carried to him by them. It is a fairly well accepted doctrine among students of therapeutic suggestion that the most powerful subconscious impressions are often carried to the mind by objects that thus come within the range of vision without being directly in the point of focus.

Select some one point at which you will look fixedly not removing your gaze one particle for sixty seconds. While looking at this spot see how many other articles you can perceive in the same room, or general location. Enumerate these without allowing your direct gaze to be fixed upon them.

Repeat the above exercise daily for five days, in the same spot and with the same object. On the sixth day try a different spot and different object.

Inasmuch as this rule will apply to all subsequent exercises in the cultivation of the senses, it will not be repeated again, but the student will understand that it applies to each exercise.

The same exercise for capacity of vision can be applied to reading. Open a book and center your gaze upon one letter on the page. See if you can read the entire word without glancing over it. See then if you can read the word before it and the word after it. Continue until you can read a group of words without removing your gaze from a single letter.

Many readers have become accustomed to reading practically a line at a time by this and other methods. One ought never to read faster than he can read accurately, but it is also possible to learn to read accurately at a faster rate than the one to which you are accustomed.

Exercise Five. Force of Gaze

Experiment first by sitting comfortably in your chair and apparently looking at nothing. Hold your eyes steady in the position in which they are.

This is not really the case because whenever your eyes are open you are looking at some one point. Now while you are still resting easily, without allowing your gaze to shift, suddenly determine the point at which you are looking. You will be surprised to find sometimes that it is from six inches to three or four feet away from what you would have guessed, had you closed your eyes before finding out. You will also be surprised to find that when you do discover the exact point you are looking at, your whole mental attitude seems to be changed and you seem to have put directness and force into your gaze.

Exercise Six. Emotional Use of the Eye

Without changing the expression of your face or the attitude of your body, attempt to put into your eye the various emotions of anger, love, joy, grief, sympathy, and so on. Then practice these same expressions of emotion allowing the facial expression to correspond with the emotion, but making yourself conscious all the time of the part your eyes are playing in the expression.

Exercise Seven. Selection of the Desired Object

As in exercise two, enter a room with which you are unfamiliar except that you know that one object for which you are searching is in plain view. See how quickly you can find that object with the eye. (Note that the average person who stands erectly will first see those things on the level of his eye. If seated, with the head bent slightly forward, he will see first those things below the level of his eye. In other words, the first tendency of the eye is to look straight ahead of it, just as the first tendency of a person putting his hand on a wall is to put it directly in front of his face.)

Another exercise in the selection of the desired object, is proof-reading. To learn to read proof quickly and to eliminate all wrong letters or bad type with unerring accuracy and great speed requires a wonderful development of the eye, which explains very largely the immense superiority in this line of work of a person experienced in it.

The above exercises all combined can be gone through in a period of less than five minutes per day. Care should be taken not to require a longer time at the start, as too great a strain would thereby be placed upon nerves unaccustomed to it. If desired, however, there would be no objection to repeating the experiments several times a day.

End.

LESSON 5

HEARING

The salesman should endeavor to cultivate a pleasant and interesting voice. It is as essential to his success as it is to the success of an orator. This does not mean that it is necessary for every successful salesman to have a beautiful, well-modulated tone, but it does mean that he must study the question of using the voice effectively. He must speak clearly and distinctly. He must avoid giving offense by using a rasping, quarrelsome tone. He must endeavor to make his voice sound like the voice of a cultured person. He must study his language so that errors of grammar, blasphemy, and other things that offend the ear will not creep in where they are likely to injure his cause.

If the article he is selling is a machine, he must remember that the noise made by the machine is likely to be an important consideration. Typewriters, for instance, are not noiseless machines, but some typewriters sell far more rapidly than others because the maker had sense enough to give some consideration to this point. Machines that make grating, harsh noises are often not satisfactory on this account. There is in existence today a regularly-formed Society for the Prevention of Unnecessary Noise. People do not like noisy machines when quiet ones will serve the purpose.

There are certain articles, such as musical instruments, in which the sound produced is the important feature of the article. Here, of course, the sense of hearing becomes the chief factor.

Let the salesman remember, too, that he must exercise his own sense of hearing, through attention, so that nothing important that is said will escape his own attention.

The ear is entirely different from the eye in the method whereby it receives impressions and the speed with which those impressions are transmitted.

You may see the light of a star many miles away in a flash, but no ordinary sound could travel that distance under any cir-

cumstances and if it could it would take many years to make the journey.

You have noticed that you can see the smoke of a gun a great distance away, while it takes some seconds for the report of the gun to reach your ears.

Sound waves travel through the air and strike upon the delicate organism of the ear-drum, and by some remarkable process which is not thoroughly understood, we can tell the direction from which the sound comes, except when it is interfered with by the peculiar shape of surrounding walls or hillsides.

Exercises for the Ear

Exercise One. Exactness

Select any one sound and thoroughly analyze it. Take a note of music or the clang of a factory hammer. Determine its pitch as accurately as you can; also its volume, its carrying power, its resonance, etc.

Describe it orally and on paper at the time you hear it, then at a later time. As you repeat the exercise each day, notice how your power to describe the sound has increased with your ability to analyze it.

A very wonderful illustration of how a single sound can be described with almost infinite variations and increasing power is the way the baying of a hound is described by Conan Doyle in "The Hound of the Baskervilles." The description reveals a power of observation that is almost supernatural.

Exercise Two. Quickness

It is difficult to devise an exercise in ear-quickness that can be experimented with in the quiet of your own home. For mechanics and others who work with and around machinery it is not difficult to find an opportunity to listen to some piece of machinery that is out of order to see how quickly the cause of the disturbance can be located. Among children a game is often played in which all of the children but one hide behind various objects, bobbing their heads up and shouting "Here!" at which time the one who is "it" is supposed to turn and see them before they can get their heads out of sight.

Exercise Three. Range

Place a watch on one side of the room and stand on the other. Approach the watch slowly and notice the distance at which you first

hear it ticking. Repeat daily with the same watch in the same room until you have become able to hear it at a great distance.

Perform the same experiment with the right ear alone by stopping up the left ear, and with the left ear by stopping up the right ear.

Perform the same experiment by standing facing the watch, by standing with your left ear to the watch, and by standing with your right ear to the watch.

Exercise Four. Direction

Go into a dark room in which someone else has placed a watch and listen until you hear it. Try to discover its exact location and to reach it with a single motion without feeling for it.

Have someone call you from various parts of a house or from various directions out-doors and learn to locate by sound the exact spot where the person is standing. Study the influence of breezes, of the structure of walls of buildings, of the typography of the land, etc., in this exercise.

Listen carefully to the sound of a distant church bell. See if you can locate the direction of the bell and the distance away. Remember to experiment with the same bell five different days.

Exercise Five. Capacity

In many occupations the capacity of hearing is very important. How many different sounds can you now hear in the room where you are sitting? In the factory where you are employed? On a city street? In a cafe where you are seated, how many voices can you hear of men in conversation? If you are a musician, how many different notes can you detect in a given chord of music?

Listen in the morning to the sounds of birds, bells, and animals of different kinds, and analyze these sounds.

An interesting exercise can be performed in the evening in a city. Give yourself sixty seconds to listen to the various sounds you hear and make note of them. Improvement in the ability to recognize a vast number of sounds will be very rapid. You will notice it distinctly on the sixth day. In analyzing the sound of a passing street car, for instance, do not say simply, "a passing street car." Say, "the grinding of wheels, the bounding of a heavy car, the singing of a trolley, the ringing up of a fare, the calling of a street, etc."

Exercise Six. Emotional Use of the Ear

Listen to someone talking and analyze his emotions. Is he tired, happy, discouraged, or hopeful? Is it a man or a woman? Is it a rich voice or a thin voice?

Then make your own voice express sorrow, weariness, joy, pain, discouragement, and hope. Your ear will direct your throat until the desired result is attained.

For the salesman, this is one of the most important exercises given. The voice is capable of almost immeasurable improvement and the ear is the sense organ through which this improvement is to be made. Deaf people who talk cannot acquire rich, beautiful tones, because the ear is not directing the process.

Exercise Seven. Selection of Desired Sound

In a multitude of sounds select a lesser sound and describe it to yourself until you become thoroughly familiar with it. Notice each day how much more easily you pick out that sound than you did the day before.

As an exercise in attention call the sound into your consciousness and then shut it out by calling into your consciousness some other sound. Then go back to the original sound. Notice the difficulty or ease with which you make the transition from one sound to another.

In many businesses the selection of the desired sound is very important. In the Stock Exchange, where men and boys are shouting at the top of their voices, the selection of the sound you are listening for is essential. The telegraph operator has been known to go to sleep while other sounds are passing through his instrument and to awaken quickly when his own signal was given. A mother with a sick child can sleep peacefully in a very babel of sound, but a single cry from the sick child will awaken her, just as an alarm clock will awaken the person who has trained himself to respond to it.

Exercise Eight. Acuteness

This is similar to exercise seven for the eye. Sit at ease listening vaguely to all the sounds that come to you. Gradually one of them will attain dominance without your knowing which one it is. Then suddenly determine to fasten your mind on that sound. Now listen eagerly for it, centering your whole mind upon it, and notice what a difference comes into the hearing of it.

LESSON 6

TOUCH, TASTE, AND SMELL

Touch

There are many articles in the sale of which the sense of touch is important. It is a common art in selling clothing to get the customer to feel the quality of the goods. The salesman of men's hats asks you to run your fingers over the hat and feel how smooth it is. The smoothness of the hat might not be a matter really worthy of any consideration, because the hat is to be on your head, and people are going to look at it rather than touch it. But the salesman knows if it is pleasant to the touch, the impression will be an agreeable one, and will convey an idea of good quality.

The matter of touch is important when you are shaking hands with a customer. A firm, cordial handclasp is a valuable asset.

In many respects touch may be considered our greatest sense. It is undoubtedly the most important for self-protection. Every minute portion of the surface of the body is equipped with nerves that not only give warnings of danger, but convey all manner of impressions to the mind.

When hearing and sight are gone, touch alone, after it has been properly trained, is able to convey nearly every necessary impression to the mind.

Not only is the surface of the body supplied with nerves, but the interior surface of the alimentary canal is so influenced by touch that it records instantly the pleasurable or unpleasant sensations that affect digestion.

When we become too hot or too cold, it is the sense of feeling that gives the signal. When the body is in an improper or unhealthful position, the feeling of discomfort or pain causes us to change the position. When muscles become overworked, the sense of feeling gives warning. And when muscles need exercise, it is the sense of feeling again that prompts us to set them in motion.

Exercises for Touch

Exercise One. Exactness

Secure samples of cotton, wool, silk, linen, oak, pine, iron, onion, potato, orange, lemon, grape fruit, baseball, banana, china cup, sugar, salt, and pepper. Touch each with the tip of the same finger while the eyes are blindfolded. See how many you can name.

Try the same experiment with each of the eight fingers and each of the two thumbs, with the back of the hand and the base of the palm.

Exercise Two. Range of Touch

Secure a number of weights and guess them. See what range of weights you are most accurate in guessing.

Exercise Three. Quickness of Touch

Perhaps no better common instruments for testing the quickness of touch are to be found than the piano and the typewriter. Take a typewriter and press a key down as if you were touching a red hot stove and yet had to touch it hard enough to make the impression of the letter. (This, by the way, is the correct touch to use on a typewriter.) This is a very excellent test of the best sort since touch must always be quick enough to accomplish the object desired in the shortest possible time and not too quick to accomplish that object.

On the piano the finger must be held down for the precise length of time indicated by the note, and the performer whose touch is either too staccato or too prolonged must practice laboriously until the sense of touch, aided by the sense of hearing, enables him to hold a note for the precise length of time desired.

Exercise Four. Capacity of Touch

Place a number of different shaped objects on a table beneath the hand. See how many objects you can name by feeling alone.

Have someone place a number of articles on a table and cover them with the palm of the hand without knowing what is beneath the hand. See how many you can name.

Stick a number of pins through a stiff cardboard. Place your fingers on the points and see how many you can count. This experiment can be performed by using the back of the hand, the palm of the hand, and the cheek.

Exercise Five. Emotional Use of Touch

Select an object that is disagreeable to the touch, such as a sticky or rough substance, and select an article that is agreeable to the touch, such as a piece of velvet. Rub your fingers over the velvet for fifteen or twenty seconds. Notice how pleasant a sensation comes over you as a result. Then rub the disagreeable substance for the same length of time and notice the effect on your emotions.

Practice handshaking daily with the same person until you learn how it should be done. Do not grasp the hand with the tips of the fingers, do not grip it too roughly, and do not let your hand slide over it. Do not touch it too delicately. Let the grasp be firm and yet easy with the palms pressed well together. A firm, friendly handclasp of this kind is a very desirable acquisition. It can be secured only by practice, and this exercise should be persisted in a number of weeks with conscious effort to improve. Some buyers do not wish to shake hands. Do not force them to do so.

Taste

The sense of taste is important in case of groceries, drinks, and other things the sale of which depends materially upon the taste. In other cases it cannot have much to do with the salesman's business, if anything.

Taste is a very much misunderstood sense. The tongue not only tastes, but it also feels, and many of the impressions that we consider taste are not taste at all, but feeling. Our senses of sight and smell are also often confused with our sense of taste.

The tastes are often classified as follows: sweet, salt, sour, and bitter. The cultivation of the sense of taste is of great importance commercially only to a few people, professional tasters of tea, tobacco, liquor, drugs, and groceries. To all other people it has no special commercial value, but is of great importance in the matter of digestion. The person who has accustomed his taste to strong seasonings or strong liquors, has, to that extent, disqualified himself from using this beneficent sense as a protection and guide in eating and drinking, and it is for this reason, quite as much as for the direct harmful effect of strong seasonings and alcohol, that the constitution of the offender is often wrecked.

Two exercises only are suggested.

Exercises for the Taste

Exercise One. Quality

Experiment with flavors, seasoning, and spices taken from your kitchen, until you are able to identify them.

Exercise Two. Practical Daily Exercise

Select some food of which you are fond and chew it slowly and thoughtfully, analyzing it until you are able to determine approximately what per cent of it is sweet, salt, sour, or bitter. The theory of Dr. Horace Fletcher in regard to slow eating has attached world-wide significance to the term "Fletcherising," which means eating slowly so that the food will become thoroughly chewed and mixed with saliva before being swallowed, and giving thought to the delightful taste of food while this process is going on. You will be surprised to find how pleasurable it is to eat simply a bit of bread and butter if you eat it in this thoughtful, careful way, thoroughly determined to get the utmost possible enjoyment from the taste. You will require from one-third to one-half the quantity of food you formerly required and will be surprised to find how pleasant the process of eating really is. If you are thin, this is one of the best remedies in the world for putting on the desired flesh, and if you are fat, it is equally efficacious as a means of reducing.

Eating is one of the most important things we do, and taste is one of the most significant factors in proper eating. This exercise will tend greatly to develop your fancy for dishes that you are already fond of, and, more than that, it will enable you to learn to eat many things of which you are not fond at present.

Simply take a mouthful of the food you do not like, if it is known to be a healthful food, and chew it slowly and thoughtfully, analyzing it. You will discover that one of the chief reasons for our disliking certain foods is that we have never given them a trial sufficient to discover what qualities to expect in them. We therefore refuse to eat them, or we swallow them with loathing, which is sure to be bad for the digestion.

There is perhaps no need of carrying the principle of "Fletcherising" to the extreme recommended by its author; but that it contains a correct principle of eating is undoubtedly true.

Smell

It should be unnecessary to state that the salesman should be very careful of the way his clothing smells, but there are many salesmen who are careless in this regard. People are much more

particular about this than we usually think they are. For a man's clothing or his breath to reek of some obnoxious odor, whether it is of tobacco or catarrh, or anything else objectionable, is very damaging to his personal influence. A barber may lose a great deal of business because he insists on chewing tobacco while serving his customers.

A dentist's business may suffer from the same cause, and some salesmen have breath so offensive as to cause the loss of considerable business. Customers refuse to talk to them.

In the case of certain goods, such as perfumery, the sense of smell is the chief factor in the sale.

Smell, like taste, has very little commercial value, except to those who use it professionally, as in the smelling of flowers, drugs, and groceries. Experts in smelling, like experts in tasting, frequently draw very high salaries, but for the ordinary person the chief value of this sense consists in the added pleasure in life that its exercise gives, and the increased sanitation that results when it is so well trained as to give warning of unsanitary conditions in home and community life. Smell is not so important as the other senses, "but," says Oliver Wendell Holmes, "it is the sense that most powerfully appeals to the memory."

Exercises in Smell

Exercise One. Quality

Select a number of different flowers and vegetables that are convenient. Give yourself three seconds to smell of each one of, say twenty, different varieties. Then with the eyes blindfolded see if you can designate the flower or vegetable by the odor.

Exercise Two

Select a given flower or perfume, place it in a room devoid of other odors and measure the distance at which you can perceive the presence of the flower; or have some one else select one of several flowers with the odors of which you are familiar, and see at what distance you can determine which it is.

As in previous exercises, repeat daily for five days and notice your improvement on the sixth day.

General Statement in Regard to Exercises for All Five Senses

It is strongly recommended that you devote from twenty to thirty minutes per day for one week to the above exercises in the cultivation of the five senses. You may not be able to see clearly before making these experiments what effect they will have upon the general keenness of your sense perceptions. After you perform them all, however, you will be in a position to judge of the value that they will be to you.

There have been cases where a resolute determination to cultivate the five senses in the manner directed by these exercises has worked a complete revolution in the capacity of the student. For each one of these exercises will open up to you ways and means of physical improvement. These are things that no one can do for you; no teacher can drill these facts into your mind.

LESSON 7

A FAIR BARGAIN BENEFITS BOTH PARTIES

It is essential for the salesman to understand the fundamental principles of commercial transactions. One of these principles will engage our attention in this lesson. This is the fixed business rule that every fair bargain must benefit both parties.

There is an amazing number of people in the world who imagine that the law of business is that one must make a profit by getting an advantage over others. As a matter of fact, the very opposite is the case. It is an established truth that those firms that are operating most successfully are the ones that are benefiting their customers most; in short, the ones that recognize the fundamental proposition that a fair bargain must benefit both parties. Let us see why this is the case.

Suppose you are in need of a pen. Your business cannot be transacted without something to write with, and you decide to manufacture a pen. You must go to a mine and dig for iron. You must build a furnace in which to heat the iron and unite it with carbon to make steel. You must then, through a hundred processes, reduce your steel to the proper shape and size to use as a pen, and, in this process, use much expensive machinery.

Your pen would cost you thousands of dollars, if you made it yourself.

Yet a manufacturer who makes millions of pens at a time, buys his steel in large quantities, and spends a fortune on expensive machinery and skilled workmen, finds that his pens cost him less than a fifth of a cent apiece. When he sells you these pens at five or ten cents a dozen, both you and he have been benefited.

Examine the following illustration:

You are employed on a farm four miles from town and desire to sell four pounds of butter to a customer named Henderson, who lives half way between your farm and town. You could get 30*c* a pound for your butter in town, but would prefer to sell it to Mr. Henderson for 25*c* a pound, or $1.00 for the four pounds, to save the time and trouble of a trip to town. The following paragraph, which contains fewer than seventy-five words, explains why this would benefit both parties. It is in the exact words of the speaker after he has mentioned the price, quality, and weight of the goods.

"Mr Henderson, in town I can get $1.20 for this butter, but I can save time and trouble by selling it to you for $1.00. I believe that the time I will save will be worth more than 20*c* to me, and I am willing to give you the benefit of the 20*c*. So you see, it will benefit us both. Do you want the butter for $1.00?"

It is true of every honest transaction that both parties must be benefited, and the salesman must ever remember this. As a rule, do not try to persuade the customer that you are losing money by trading with him. The famous advertisement, "If you don't buy my hats we both lose money," expresses this same idea in a different way.

It does not necessarily follow that both buyer and seller should make an equal amount of money. On the contrary, the customer must often be shown that his profits (or advantages) will be worth many times the entire cost of the article, before he will buy it at all.

The question then naturally arises: "How should profit be divided between the two parties to a bargain?"

The answer to this question is that the man who has merchandise for sale must put a price on his goods that will give him enough profit to pay him for engaging in business and at the same time give his customer enough profit or benefit to induce him to begin or cause him to continue as a customer. In order to do this intelligently, he must know what the world's supply of his product is, and what the demand for it is in his locality. He must understand how to create that demand where it does not exist already. He must understand how to produce high grade goods at low cost, and be able to explain these advantages to his customers.

To summarize the above, the division of profit depends on:

(1) The law of supply and demand.

(2) The manufacturer's ability to produce high grade goods at low cost.

(3) The salesman's ability.

By understanding these things the man who fixes a price will know how to increase the amount of profit, or benefit, his firm may wisely or safely obtain in its transactions.

The salesman who sells goods which his customer expects to sell again at a profit must be *honest in his desire for his customer to make money.* Nothing else will win in the long run. A firm's profit usually depends upon the continued patronage of customers. In the case above cited, this depends upon the customer's ability to make money with his goods.

If your customer is not making money on your line, and finds it out, he will buy from you no longer. If he does not find it out, and you are selling him most of his goods, he will fail. In either case, you are a loser as well as he.

Why Gambling and Speculation Are Wrong

Gambling and speculation are wrong not necessarily because they involve chance, but because they violate the first principle of common honesty and good salesmanship, namely, that a fair bargain must benefit both parties.

Practically all business has in it the element of chance. Scientific business eliminates chance as much as possible, through education, insurance, co-operation, and dozens of other methods that are similar.

Every possible means is adopted to make science, rather than chance, the basis of business.

But notwithstanding all that has been done and all that can be done, an element of chance will always remain. We cannot control the weather; we can only guard our crops against adverse conditions to the best possible extent. We cannot control the life and death of workers; we can only work to conserve life wherever possible.

Practically every business involves chance, from that of the farmer, miner, and fisher, who stand at the beginning of all production, to that of the preacher, the lawyer, and the doctor, whose fees depend upon the general prosperity of people and upon their ability or luck in discovering how to get the most for their services.

But business is not speculation in the real meaning of the word, and speculation and gambling are wrong, not in the element of chance, for in both of them the element of chance is often entirely lacking. The wrong lies in the fact that in speculation and gambling what a man gets is at the expense of another man or other men.

A fair bargain must benefit both parties. "The curse of gambling," says Orrin M. Donaldson in *Common Honesty,* "lies not in the element of chance but in the fact that what one man gains at it other men of necessity lose. It is inspired by the desire of something for nothing, and all that is true of gambling is true, to a large extent, of speculation."

Fix this firmly in your mind. A fair bargain must benefit both parties. The advantage, while differing perhaps in degree, must be mutual. There must be advantages on both sides.

With this principle firmly fixed in mind and honestly believed, the student has made a good beginning in the study of salesmanship.

The Bargain Not a Fraud, but a Benefit

It is a fundamental condition of the salesman's success that he must realize that his proposal is of advantage to the buyer; that it is not a fraud, but a benefit.

The salesman who thinks that his article is not worth buying must inevitably come to the conclusion that it is not worth selling.

There is only one difference between the man who thinks in terms of fraud and the man who defrauds. This is a difference of time.

And fraud leads eventually to failure.

A fair bargain must benefit both parties; and it is not until a man's mind fastens itself positively upon this fact that he becomes a good salesman.

The man who sells goods under the impression that he is taking advantage of his customer is not a salesman. He is a thief.

There are thousands of details in good salesmanship, but only a few basic rules; and these finally resolve themselves into one fundamental principle.

This principle is that of mutual service and co-operation. It is what makes all trade and commerce honorable morally and right in economic principle, and it is definitely expressed in the rule that a bargain, or exchange, to be fair, must benefit both parties. That is, it must enable each to get for his services in connection with the article sold, a fair and just reward for his labor and capital invested. The rule of fairness operates directly to form the basis of continued successful business.

If the salesman foists upon the buyer a lot of goods as rotten as the decayed timber of the Ark, he must expect to be unsuccessful upon his subsequent trips; and if the buyer learns that the goods, though of fine quality, have not been in style since the days of Henry Clay, the result will be the same. The salesman's only successful season will be his first one, and, in the language of the Irishman, the successful season is a failure.

The salesman who sells goods that build business and create prosperity is accomplishing that which makes life worth living, and there are thousands of knights of the grip who measure their own happiness and contentment as much by the services they have rendered to their customers as by the number of dollars that have stuck to their fingers in the process. But there is always this comforting feature of such transactions to the lowly-minded who are not greatly in sympathy with the "uplift"; that in the main the salesman who aids customers to succeed will himself succeed.

Student's Exercise for Lesson 7

You are a salesman for a shoe manufacturer in your city. You have a shoe which you sell at $24.00 a dozen to any point in the United States, express or freight charges prepaid. Since there will be no such charges if you sell the goods to a dealer in your own town, you are willing to sell him six dozen of these shoes at $23.50 a dozen. Write an argument of fifty to seventy-five words, explaining to him why this sale will benefit both parties. Do not mention any other points. The dealer's name is Jackson. Use it in speaking to him.

CHART THREE

SALESMANSHIP

1. KINDS OF SALESMANSHIP
   - 1. In Person
   - 2. By Correspondence
   - 3. By Advertising
2. KINDS OF SALESMEN
   - Promoters
   - Wholesale Salesmen
   - Retail Salesmen
   - Canvassers
3. FACTORS OF SALE
   - Customer (see charts 4 and 7)
   - Commodity (see chart 8)
   - Salesman
4. SALES CLASSIFIED AS TO SIMPLICITY
   - Class 1 — Very easy; Requires Accuracy
   - Class 2 — Easy; Requires: Accuracy, Industry
   - Class 3 — Medium; Requires: Accuracy, Industry, Personality
   - Class 4 — Hard; Requires: Accuracy, Industry, Personality, Argument
   - Class 5 — Very Hard; Requires: Accuracy, Industry, Personality, Argument, Persuasion

Read the above chart before studying Lesson 8, and refer to it as your study progresses, comparing it with the shorter outlines which are presented throughout the lesson, and endeavoring to fix the outlines in your mind. Refer to it in review after completing Lesson 8.

LESSON 8

OUTLINES AND DEFINITIONS

SALESMANSHIP
- KINDS OF SALESMANSHIP
- KINDS OF SALESMEN
- FACTORS OF THE SALE
- SALES CLASSIFIED AS TO SIMPLICITY

SALESMANSHIP is the art of selling goods or services upon terms desirable to the seller. It is the basis of business transactions.

The ELEMENTS of salesmanship are those physical, intellectual, inspirational, and moral qualities that are necessary to the accomplishment of a sale.

By FACTORS of the sale we refer to the three essential definite objects that must be considered in every sale,—the customer, the thing sold, and the salesman.

There are three kinds of salesmanship, as follows:

SALESMANSHIP
- IN PERSON
- BY CORRESPONDENCE
- BY ADVERTISING

SALESMANSHIP IN PERSON refers to sales in which the buyer and seller, or their agents, come together face to face for the transaction of their business.

SALESMANSHIP BY CORRESPONDENCE refers to sales made through the medium of letters.

SALESMANSHIP BY ADVERTISING is that kind of salesmanship which is accomplished through magazines, newspapers, posters, signs, etc.

This book deals with salesmanship in person.

There are four classes of salesmen:

SALESMEN
- THE WHOLESALE SALESMAN
- THE RETAIL SALESMAN
- THE CANVASSER
- THE PROMOTER

The wholesale salesman represents either a manufacturing or a jobbing house and sells to retail dealers. Most of these men are traveling salesmen, though a few of them sell goods in their own stock-rooms.

The retail salesman represents a different branch of salesmanship, for he sells goods usually in single items and almost entirely to customers who come to him instead of requiring him to go to them.

The canvasser usually sells single items like the retailer, but goes out for his customers as the wholesale salesman does.

The work of the promoter requires the very highest grade of salesmanship. His deals are usually larger than other sales. They comprise the elements of newness in their very nature, and often require sales to be accomplished on a basis of shorter personal acquaintance than the wholesale salesman enjoys.

For these reasons he must be a man of far more than average neatness, courtesy, forcible speech, and magnetic personality.

In addition to the above he must understand certain subjects to a much greater degree of perfection than must the traveling salesman. Among these subjects are:

Commercial Law
Corporation Organization
Advertising
Banking and Finance
Accounting

These four kinds of salesmen sell by different methods, but certain fundamental truths hold good for all four.

The factors of a sale are:

FACTORS OF A SALE
1. THE CUSTOMER
2. THE THING SOLD
3. THE SALESMAN

It is the purpose of this course to teach you first how to understand each of these factors separately, and second, how to use this knowledge to accomplish the sale; and also to show you

that the rules that govern the making of a sale are just as firmly established as are the factory rules for the manufacture of the goods themselves.

For convenient study, the sale has been divided into five classes, according to simplicity. These classes are discussed in considerable detail in the pages following. Study these pages with great care, as it is important for you to understand thoroughly this fundamental classification.

Sales Classified as to Simplicity

Class 1. The simplest business sale is one in which the customer is so anxious to buy at a specified price that he comes to the salesman and voluntarily offers him the proper amount of money for the goods. As an illustration, take the ticket seller in the box office of a theatre. A line of customers is waiting. Each customer is ready to pay for his ticket as soon as it is given to him. You will at once see that there is only one requirement of the salesman here. This is the requirement of accuracy in handling a transaction the details of which are simple and usually so well known by the buyer as to require no selling talk whatever.

Class 2. The customer is not anxious as in the previous case, but is perfectly willing to buy at a given price of any salesman who may happen to ask for his business.

Take as an illustration another kind of ticket seller. Suppose a concert is to be given and a number of people are engaged in canvassing for the sale of tickets. Mr. Smith, a prospective customer, is perfectly willing to buy a ticket to the concert from the first person who asks him. You will at once perceive that the salesman must have industry or activity, in addition to meeting the requirement of accuracy as in the first case. This industry may be either of the body or of the mind. For instance, suppose a young man selling tickets for a concert is anxious to sell more than his competitors, but perhaps is not conveniently situated so that he can personally visit as many prospective buyers as others can. He goes to a telephone and calls up twenty or thirty people,

securing their pledges to buy tickets of him. Thus by directing mental activity, he achieves more than his competitors who use mere physical activity visiting customers in person.

You will observe that in this second class, the requirements are:

(1) Accuracy, as in Class 1, and
(2) Industry

In both cases the so-called salesmen are merely order-takers.

Class 3. Sales of Class 1 and Class 2 are so simple in their requirements that they need no special attention here. In the first class, the customer is *anxious* to buy. In the second class he is *willing* to buy. In Class 3, however, we have an entirely different situation—the customer is neither willing nor unwilling to buy, the matter never having been brought to his attention. Often such customers can use the goods offered and will buy if the right impression is made. They do not have to be convinced of the value of the goods through argument, and the salesman may so impress such customers with his personality that he can secure the order easily.

For instance, take the same simple illustration of the concert tickets. Two people with these tickets for sale reach the customer at exactly the same time. The customer has not considered the matter yet, but needs no argument to bring him to a favorable conclusion. Neither one of the salesmen has to argue about the value of the tickets. It is merely a question of which one can make the best impression upon the customer.

A forceful personality is an important requirement of the successful salesman. While it is desirable for one to have a good proposition, a well-known house, and skill in argument, there are many cases in which these things do not count so much as personality alone. Personality gives strength to the salesman's argument and inspires in the customer confidence in the house for which the salesman works. This ought not, however, to discourage anyone from the pursuit of selling goods, for there is nothing vague or mystical about a convincing personality; nothing

that cannot be acquired through effort and study. One purpose of this course is to show you how you can improve your personality and make it more effective for the work of salesmanship.

If you have any doubt that this can be accomplished, please consider the following statements before yielding to your doubts:

(1) Personality depends upon the development of the physical, intellectual, inspirational, and moral qualities of manhood.

(2) All these can be improved.

(3) The word *physical* does not refer merely to the height, weight, or strength of a man. It embraces also his general state of vigor and his personal appearance, both of which can be improved by following the common laws of health and cleanliness.

(4) By "the improvement of the intellectual man," reference is made especially to the salesman's mastery of the details of his own business, which can be secured through study.

(5) The inspirational qualities are those by means of which one inspires himself to greater effort and gathers inspiration from others.

(6) The moral elements of personality in the salesman are the ones that inspire confidence, and these can be acquired by clean living and right thinking.

The requirements of Class 3 are:

(1) Accuracy
(2) Industry
(3) Strong personality

Class 4. But while his personality may gain for the salesman an audience with a buyer and an influence over him that frequently controls the sale, there are certain points beyond which mere personality cannot go. Here the salesman must use, in addition to the requirements already mentioned, a skill in argument which is based upon his knowledge of the goods and his ability to convey this knowledge of the goods to the mind of the buyer.

The requirements of Class 4 are:

(1) Accuracy
(2) Industry
(3) Strong Personality
(4) Argument

Class 5. This is the hardest class of sale. The customer is absolutely unwilling to buy. After all the powers of energy, personality, and argument have been brought into play, a final faculty is required of the salesman to enable him to accomplish one of these most difficult sales. This is the art of persuasion. Suppose you have argued your point with a customer until he is thoroughly convinced of the value of the goods, but for some unknown reason he does not buy. In many cases, you must exercise your power of persuasion. Undoubtedly, when buying a hat or a necktie, you have had that peculiar mental impression that you were convinced of the value of the goods, but had not yet been persuaded to buy them. This is the frame of mind in which you will find a great many of your customers and the art of persuading without appearing to gush or plead is one of the things you must learn.

You will thus see that sales have been arbitrarily divided into five classes according to their simplicity.

In Class 1 the customer is ANXIOUS to buy. The sale is *very easy*. The only requirement is *accuracy*.

In Class 2 the customer is WILLING to buy, but not easily accessible. The sale is *easy*, but not so easy as before. The requirements are *accuracy* and *industry*.

In Class 3, the customer is INDIFFERENT. The sale is *neither easy nor hard*. It requires *accuracy, industry,* and *personality*.

In Class 4, the customer is UNCONVINCED. The sale is *hard*. The requirements are *accuracy, industry, personality,* and *argument*.

In Class 5, the customer is UNWILLING. The sale is *very hard*. The requirements are *accuracy, industry, personality, argument,* and *persuasion*.

Fix in your mind the following tabulations:

Class 1. Customer Anxious.
Class 2. Customer Willing.
Class 3. Customer Indifferent.
Class 4. Customer Unconvinced.
Class 5. Customer Unwilling.

Requirements:

Class 1. Accuracy.
Class 2. Accuracy, Industry.
Class 3. Accuracy, Industry, Personality.
Class 4. Accuracy, Industry, Personality, Argument.
Class 5. Accuracy, Industry, Personality, Argument, Persuasion.

Student's Exercise for Lesson 8

Write an essay of not over 200 words, by answering the questions below in full sentences.

What are the three kinds of salesmanship? What are the four classes of salesmen? What are the three factors of a sale? Tabulate the requirements in the five classes of sales, arranged according to their simplicity.

CHART FOUR

IDENTIFICATION AND DESCRIPTION (Facts to be learned about the customer)	1. NAME 2. ADDRESS 3. EXTENT OF HIS BUSINESS IN YOUR LINE 4. ATTITUDE TOWARD ARTICLE YOU SELL 5. ATTITUDE TOWARD YOUR ESPECIAL MAKE (SEE CHART FIVE) 6. HIS PERSONALITY

Read the above chart before studying Lesson 9. Refer to it as your study of the lesson progresses, comparing it with the matter studied, as you did in studying Lesson 8.

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PART II

THE CUSTOMER

LESSON 9

THE CUSTOMER IS A FRIEND—NOT AN ENEMY

The old idea of a sale or trade was that one man's profit was another man's loss.

The idea of a bargain being two-sided and a benefit to both parties, is comparatively modern; but it is by virtue of this fact that good salesmen know the customer not as an enemy, but as a friend.

Pretended friendship does little good. The friendship must be actual.

Why?

Certainly not on account of the beauty of friendship as a sentiment. One may make such friendships elsewhere than in his business.

It is because if your customer is your real friend you will want him to make money—and salesmen can't make money unless the buyers do.

Let us see why the salesman who is dishonest cannot succeed.

1. Suppose he has seventy-five customers to whom he sells all their goods.

2. He cheats all of them on every item.

3. They all fail.

4. He has no customers left to sell goods to, and he fails himself.

Of course, exception must be made of the wanderer who finds a different customer for every sale, and steals quietly from one town to snare the helpless in the next; but he is not the kind of person these lessons deal with.

You must study the buyer, then, as a friend upon whom you propose to confer a favor.

What is the size of his business? Will your line increase it?

What is its character? Are your goods appropriate to it? Will they improve it?

What are the needs of his business? Will what you sell him remain on his shelves unsold, or will he use it, or sell it quickly and with profit?

What are the troubles of his business? You know something about the success and failure of hundreds of men in similar lines. Can you make the sort of suggestion that will bring his business up ten, twenty, or a hundred per cent, or are you the sort of person who will make an honest man resentful every time you offer a suggestion?

But it is one thing to make a suggestion and another thing to know how to act if it isn't accepted. Remember the buyer is the buyer "for a' that."

There is perhaps no better way to show the importance of this attitude of friendliness to the customer than by a few illustrations.

In a western town, a clothing salesman called upon an old customer and found that he had fallen into debt and his stock of goods and fixtures had been sold to a new man. The new man seemed to be an aggressive, intelligent fellow, and bought even more goods than the former owner.

In the course of conversation, the salesman inquired about his old friend, and learned that he had taken to drinking heavily, was now "down and out" and was usually to be found singing maudlin songs in the "Silver Dollar" saloon.

The ordinary salesman would have been content to have sold a larger bill of goods than usual and would have paid no further attention to his old customer; but this salesman, remembering with gratitude the many favors he had received in the past

strolled over to the "Silver Dollar" about meal time, found the poor fellow, and took him to the hotel for dinner.

After the meal and a short walk had got the man's mind into a fairly clear condition, the salesman said, "Jim, I have here a little magazine issued by the Great Northern, showing about a hundred good business chances here in the West. There is a fine opening for a clothing store at C——ville. Why don't you go over there and start up again?"

"No use," said Jim. "Nobody will have anything to do with me nowadays."

"Nonsense!" replied the salesman. "If you will break away from your old associations here, nobody in C——ville will know the difference. You have still enough money left for another beginning and I am sure you can make it go."

After an hour or two of argument he succeeded in persuading Jim to go to C——ville, where he started again and succeeded, and of course that meant lots of business for the salesman. But then in stories the hero should not look for any reward, so we will say nothing about that.

The representative of a Detroit fur house discovered that the average small dealer was not well enough posted on furs to sell them to the discriminating, high-class buyer. He proposed to the house that specializers be supplied by them to go right into the stores of their customers each year, a week at a time, and assist in the selling.

"The average salesman," he said, "doesn't know a mink from a beaver or a sealskin from dyed cats-fur. He can't say anything about the skin of a sable that will make it sound any better than plain rabbit. As for astrakhan, angora, and 'electric seal,' he would know just as much about them if you named them Yucatan, Kalamazoo, and Przemyzl.

"Send one of our specializers to each of our big customers to help him for a week. Let his presence be advertised. Make no charge for his time or expenses."

The house replied, "If you think so much of that proposition, try it on your own account. If it will increase your sales, your

commissions will be higher. If it doesn't you will lose. We are not a charitable institution. Do it for yourself."

The salesman took up the gauntlet; got another man to handle half his territory and settled down to give from three days to a week to each of his good customers.

He multiplied his previous sales by four.

The reason was that he got in line with the fundamental principle that permanent business success is built up by conferring benefits upon patrons.

One of the first things a salesman must do is to find out certain facts about his customer which are sure to be necessary or valuable to him in his work. These facts will vary in different cases. There are certain facts that it is usually necessary to know, such as the name and address, when they are essential to the transaction or desired for future reference. There are certain facts of personality and business conditions in respect to which no two customers will be exactly alike, and these facts (especially such of them as show a difference from the normal on the part of the customer) are of extraordinary importance to the salesman. In short, the salesman must understand his customer, and his understanding must be based on facts.

A perusal of any of the Sherlock Holmes stories will interest the salesman in the quality of observation which the salesman must cultivate. Sherlock Holmes had a remarkable faculty for finding out what sort of people he was dealing with, through powers of close observation. The author, Conan Doyle, takes pains to explain in every story that Sherlock Holmes did nothing by chance, and did not rely upon any invisible, peculiar, or mystic power to aid him in making his deductions. He had simply cultivated a remarkable shrewdness of observation. This is a quality that the salesman must cultivate. It will enable him to understand his customer.

The Analysis of Temperaments

Some people are able to judge the characteristics of others at a glance with unusual facility.

All human beings have this ability, like every other personal faculty, to a certain extent. One sees a man rushing at him with a knife drawn in his hand and he realizes that he intends to do him injury. He sees another man looking at him with the same expression without a knife in his hand and he comes to realize that that man intends to do him injury.

He catches the expression on the face of a man who is doing him a kindness and he knows that the expression he has seen betokens noble character. He sees the same expression on the face of a stranger and reads kindness and nobility in it.

A scientific study of various temperaments of men is of great value to the salesman who wishes to learn how to analyze his customers.

Temperament as defined in the dictionary is, "the peculiar physical and mental character of an individual."

Examine the list of temperaments given below.

TEMPERAMENTS. CHART FIVE

Friendly	Well-balanced	Active, Dominant
Unfriendly	Eccentric	Passive
Generous	Thrifty	Moral
Selfish	Extravagant	Immoral
Optimistic	Intellectual	Interested in Essentials
Pessimistic	Ignorant	Interested in Unimportant Details
Nervous	Emotional	Artistic and Cultured
Phlegmatic	Unemotional	Unrefined

Above are some of the most common temperaments and their opposites.

It is important to classify your buyer at once with regard to his temperament.

When introducing yourself to a customer, you have no time to stop and study him "from the ground up." You must learn how to grasp the vital points of his temperament at once, and this ability is the result of previous study.

The following will give you the data you need:

1. His appearance
2. His voice and manner of speech and action
3. His statements
4. His actions

Appearance

The first thing you will notice as to his appearance is his cleanliness and dress, in comparison with others in his own community. You can judge many things about him at a glance, just as he will be mentally taking your measure.

Next you will notice his build, his facial expression, and the shape of his face and head.

The study of the facial angles is known as physiognomy. The study of the shape of the head is known as phrenology.

So deep a study is required to master these sciences that it is not wise for anyone not a specialist to trust to his knowledge of them except in a general way. It is declared, for instance, by many authors that a deep, prominent nose denotes vital power and mental strength, yet who does not know instances of weaklings with such noses? A receding chin is said to denote weakness, yet one of the strongest characters I know belongs to a man with such a chin.

One of the most common errors of this sort is the idea that a person is intelligent in proportion to the size of his brain. On this subject one of our best authorities, Dr. S. E. Jelliffe, says that the truth of the matter is as follows: "Taller and heavier persons have usually heavier brains. Weight of brain has no direct relationship with intelligence, as idiots' brains have weighed as much as the brains of the ablest of men. Intellectual capacity consists in the great multiplicity of nerve cell connections. More-

over, the shape and size of the outside skull bears no constant relation to the shape and size of the inside brain. Cuvier's brain weighed 84 ounces, Gambetta's only 39 ounces. While it is true that a number of celebrated men of recognized brain power have had large brains, there are many more of equal capacity who have not." (Cuvier was an eminent French scientist; Gambetta an equally eminent French statesman.)

It is far safer for the average person (in fact, at the present time for everybody) to trust to an analysis of the facial expression rather than to the shape of the head or features. Here at least we have a standard of measurement that is accurate except in the case of natural actors and hypocrites. Ordinarily (though not always) "a man's good deeds will be reflected in his face, and evil also sets its mark upon him."

Voice and Manner

His voice and manner of speech and action are a still more reliable measure. A quick, sharp voice indicates a nervous temperament, a musical voice an emotional or artistic one, a loud, strident voice an active or dominant temperament. A fast, short step indicates a nervous temperament, a long, swinging stride, an optimistic temperament, a stolid face, an unemotional temperament, etc.

Yet even here we must beware of pitfalls. An artist may be personally unkempt and unattractive, and a man of eccentric moral opinions may be not at all eccentric in his dress. You must learn to judge as a good juror does, by the "weight of the evidence," and you must remember that the strongest evidence of all lies in the statements and actions of a person, especially the latter.

Statements

When judging a man by his statements, the first consideration is whether his statements are genuine opinions or false; next, whether they exhibit thought or feeling, or both.

Actions

These afford the best evidence of both character and temperament. "How can I hear what you *say*," says Emerson, "when what you *do* is thundering in my ears?" It is because actions afford the best data as to a buyer's temperament that the salesman can deal most effectively with a man that he knows.

The study of character-reading is valuable, but the salesman must learn that its rules are not fixed rules. Many a great business man has been ruined in the end by someone he has trusted all his life.

Exercise for Lesson 9

Write an essay of not over 200 words answering the following questions in full sentences.

Why do you injure yourself when you injure a customer? Name several things you should know about your customer. What is temperament? Upon what facts can you base your first impressions of a buyer's temperament?

LESSON 10

THOUGHT AND FEELING AND ACTION

Two thousand years ago, Plato, who was one of the first great Greek philosophers, analyzed the manifestations of the soul and reduced them to three original faculties, as follows:

Intellect
Sentiment
Sensation

Today we recognize three divisions of thinking that are quite similar to the above. Sensation precedes thinking and action follows it. Hence we have:

1st	*2d*	*3d*
SENSATION	INTELLECT EMOTION WILL	ACTION

Men think, feel, and will. To think without feeling or to feel without thinking, is a vital error in the use of will power; and

to think and feel without using the will to act is suicidal in the deepest meaning of the term—the self-destruction of the soul.

Notice the order of the words—think, feel, will. It is their proper chronological order. Men should *think* first, clearly, logically, honestly. They should *feel* second, and their feelings should be in accord with the truest and noblest presentations of their thought. They should then *will to act* in conformity with thoughts that are right and feelings that are based upon right thought.

But men do not do so. They often will to act without feeling or without thinking, and still more frequently they feel without either thinking or acting.

In analyzing a customer, therefore, it becomes vital to your success to discover first what his type is as to the preponderance of thought, feeling, or will to act.

The illustrations below will help you grasp this idea.

1. Well-balanced man.

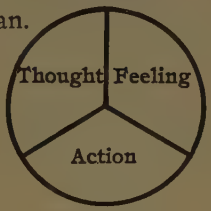

FIGURE 6, *a*.

This buyer will place an order if he needs the goods and you explain their merits honestly and enthusiastically.

2. Controlled by reason.

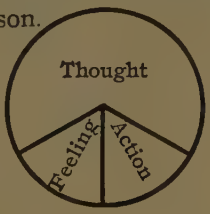

FIGURE 6, *b*.

You cannot work on this man's prejudices, pride, or passions. It will pay you to stick to facts and figures.

3. Controlled by feeling.

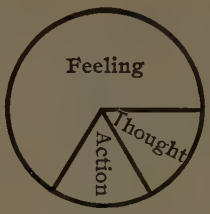

FIGURE 6, *c*.

This man is controlled by feelings. Appeal to his personal side. Rouse his ambition, pride, and other emotions.

4. Controlled by chance.

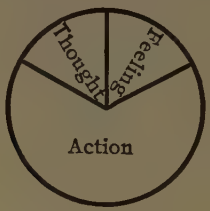

FIGURE 6, *d*.

This man will do something, right or wrong, and do it quickly. Make your selling talk short.

Feeling is difficult to explain or analyze. It may be the result of inherited qualities or faculties; it may be the result of early childhood training; it may be the result of any one of a thousand thought processes; it may be the result of habit.

But the process of thinking has been carefully analyzed by scientists. It consists of the following:

1. Observing
2. Comparing
3. Reasoning
4. Judging

No man can have a thought of any kind that is not based, or was not based, first upon observation. He may have observed through his eyes, his ears, his nose, his organs of taste, or his

sense of touch; or he may have based his thought upon the memory of a previous observation or upon that combination of observations that we call imagination. But at the beginning of his thought in the first place there must be some thing or combination of things he has observed through one of the five senses.

Having observed two things similar in their nature, the thinker is now ready to compare them; and this comparison is the second part of the process of thinking.

Things are never either large or small, hot or cold, hard or soft, except by comparison.

After having made a comparison or a number of comparisons, the thinker is now ready to reason—that is, to gather together certain facts and solidify them into certain proposed lines of action or opinion.

After having done this—and not until he has done this—is the thinker ready to undertake to render a judgment on any matter, and judging is the final part of the process of thinking.

Summarizing the above, after a man has observed, he is ready to compare; after he has compared, he is ready to reason; after he has reasoned, he is ready to judge. Or, turning the statement around, a man cannot judge until he has reasoned; he cannot reason until he has compared; he cannot compare until he has observed.

The value of this knowledge to the salesman is as follows: When a man's temperament is such that his acts are controlled by his intellect, it is important for the salesman to know what the process of that thinking is, so that he may assist the mind of the buyer along the line of observing, comparing, reasoning, and judging in order that the final action will be favorable. He must not ask his buyer to judge until he has had an opportunity to reason. He can have no opportunity to reason until he has compared, and his comparison will not be favorable unless the salesman has skillfully directed his powers of observation in exactly the right channels.

The ability to judge men and women, like every other ability in the world, comes as the result of study and effort. Careful

study will increase the power of any man or woman to judge others correctly. Do not allow yourself to think that your judgment of a man must be an "off-hand intuition." It should be a matter of careful, definite study.

Classifying Customers

Suppose you are a salesman for the Singer Sewing Machine Company. Before you begin work with any customer you desire if possible to find out to what class he belongs, first, as to ease of sale, second, as to temperament.

1 2 3.

As to Ease of Sale

1. If he belongs to Class 1, he will send you his order without solicitation, requiring of you only accuracy in the statement of your proposition and in the performance of your contract to deliver the goods on time and in good condition.

2. If he does not belong to Class 1, you may call upon him and hold a conversation something like this:

You: "Good morning, Mr. Jones; I am Mr. ————, representing the Singer Sewing Machine Company."

Jones: "I am glad to see you. I need some new machines of some kind right away."

You: "I came just at the right time, then, because if you need some machines, you are certain to need the Singer."

Jones: "I don't know about that. Brown, the Wheeler & Wilson man, was in yesterday, and I have done business with him for so many years that I hated to put him off. But I thought I'd better see your new model first."

In Jones' reply to your first question he showed that he did not belong to Class 1 or 2, for if he had he would not have used the words "of some kind." He also showed that he was *probably* not in Class 5, as he said his business would require him to buy some machine at once. In his reply to the next question, he showed that he was not in Class 3, as he had refused to give Brown an order on the mere strength of Brown's personality. He must therefore be in Class 4.

The following is an interesting table of things about the customer that the salesman should usually find out:

(1) Name.
(2) Address.
(3) Extent of his business in your line.
(4) Attitude toward the article you sell.
(5) Attitude to your special make.
(6) His personality.

The special points that the salesman should find out about his customer vary according to the kind of commodity he sells. Take as an example of a specialty, the business college business. The information usually desired by the salesman is:

(1) Name.
(2) Address.
(3) Parent's name.
(4) Age.
(5) Previous schooling.
(6) Life plans if known.
(7) Attitude toward business college education.
(8) Attitude toward the school the salesman represents.

As to Temperament

Size up the buyer as to temperament in the manner that has been described, using your powers of observation as to his

Appearance
Voice and Manner
Statements
Actions

Select one or two dominant features of his temperament as shown in chart five.

Then decide, as soon as you can, whether he is controlled mainly by

Intellect
or
Emotion

Then whether he has a will that is

Dominant
or
Passive

You are then ready to analyze the case something after the following fashion:

Customer: Smith.
Sale: Class 5. Very hard. Customer unwilling.
Temperament: Emotional, artistic.
Controlled by: Feelings.
Will: Passive.

Student's Exercise for Lesson 10

Write 200 words as in previous lessons.

What three things can the mind do? What should the salesman first observe as to the buyer's powers of thinking, feeling, and acting? What are the four processes in thinking? Analyze yourself as to temperament; as to the preponderance of thought, feeling, or action in your mind; and as to the power of your will.

CHART SIX

ATTITUDE TOWARD YOUR GOODS

- If a User
  - One who purchases for his own use
  - One who purchases for others
- If a Dealer
  - Proprietor
  - Agent or "Buyer"
- If neither User nor Dealer

1. Is he prejudiced against
   - You?
   - Your firm?
   - Your article?
2. Is he open to argument?
3. If not, why?
4. Can this cause be removed?

Read the foregoing chart carefully before studying Lesson 11, comparing it with the shorter outlines given in the lesson as your study proceeds.

LESSON 11

USERS, DEALERS, AND OTHER BUYERS

It is important to find out certain facts regarding your customer's tastes and character, and, if he is a dealer, the size and quality of his stock, so that you can learn how to approach him. Much depends in this case upon whether you are a wholesale salesman, retail salesman, or canvasser, since this fact gives the key to the special things you must learn about your customer. Generally speaking, however, we may say that your customers will be divided into three classes.

1. Those who purchase for their own use.
2. Those who purchase for others, as dealers.
3. Those who are neither users nor dealers.

Class 1. In the first class you have the simple task of enthusing a customer over your commodity, and the better you understand his desires, tastes, and character, the more readily you will be able to make a sale.

Class 2. In the second class we are obliged to make two subdivisions as follows:

a. Those buyers who purchase goods to be sold to the trade.

b. Those who purchase on behalf of some friend for the friend's personal use.

Class 3. In the third class we have those who, as politicians, or public servants, simply decide upon what others are to buy and use. In this class are school boards, who decide upon the texts that are to be used by pupils, city councils and state legislatures, who decide upon certain lines of merchandise or building materials that must be used in public contracts, etc. Often these buyers know little of what is required, and depend upon teachers, contractors, and others to aid them in forming opinions. In such cases the salesman must influence two or more people, and frequently a dozen or a hundred, to secure official approval of his books or materials, and occasionally salesmen have found it

necessary to awaken the interest of an entire community to compel officials to give proper attention to their claims.

In either class 2 or 3 you have two distinct classes of customers with whom to deal.

First, those who are willing, regardless of their own personal tastes, to purchase of you what they actually think others will desire to use. These are the customers whose keen business sense simplifies your problem. You have but to convince such men that the public demands your article at the price at which they can afford to sell it and you win your case. If a person is buying to present the article to a friend, then you have merely to convince him that the friend would want or could use that article.

These are the buyers who are influenced by intellect rather than feeling.

Second, those who have hobbies and prejudices which must be overcome before they are willing to consider the purchase of any article. Here you have the double difficulty of overcoming the prejudice of the customer and of convincing him of the salability of the goods.

The more you engage in selling goods, the more you will recognize the truth of the above. One merchant will be so unprejudiced in mind and so absolutely unsentimental that he would buy anything in the world if you convinced him that he could sell it at a profit. Another who has a dislike for gaudy neckties will refuse to buy the late nobby colors that his competitor is selling by the dozens and scores every day. An interesting illustration is the case of a clothing merchant who recently went to the wall because he was bitterly and violently opposed for religious reasons to what he termed the "sporty" in clothing, and handled only plain or old-fashioned goods.

When your customer has a personal hobby, you can usually overcome it more easily by having a generous sympathy with it than by obstinate opposition. For instance, if you are selling a pneumatic auto tire for a light motor dray or truck and your customer favors a solid tire that will not puncture, it is usually best not to start in by ridiculing the solid tire, but to begin by saying

something like this: "Yes, Mr. Steele, if a man could have a soft tire that would never puncture it would be a fine thing, and the man who invented it could sell the patent for a million dollars in twenty-four hours. But the trouble with these hard tires is that they bump over rough roads so violently that they injure the machinery of the car, and really cost more in that way than they save in tires."

A calm, reasonable talk like this will often make a sale where a heated debate would lose it.

In selling to those who purchase for their own use, the salesman's first great problem is to find out what general quality of goods the customer prefers to use or wear and whether he is one who would be able to pay the price for goods of the quality mentioned. It is a serious blunder on the part of the salesman to go ahead showing handsome articles to a customer who he should know is not able to pay the amount of money they will cost. Such a blunder means that the salesman has educated the customer's taste in favor of a superior quality and make of goods, and that when he is obliged to show him those of a quality that he can afford they will not look attractive.

Suppose, for instance, a gentleman goes to a store to buy a suit of clothes, and the salesman, without noticing how the customer is dressed, or without inquiring as to what grade of clothes he wishes to purchase, proceeds to show him ready-made suits selling at $30.00, $35.00 and $40.00. Eventually he finds a suit that pleases the customer. The customer inquires the price. He is told that it is $40.00. He then says he cannot afford to pay more than $15.00. The salesman has put in all this time hurting his cause because now the customer is not likely to be pleased with any of those that sell for $15.00. He leaves the store without making a purchase. He goes into the establishment of a competitor two or three days later. The competitor's salesman is clever enough to guess that the customer wants a $15.00 suit of clothes, or has common sense enough to ask him. He shows him $15.00 suits exclusively. The customer has by this time been away long enough to have forgotten the fascination that the $40.00

suit had over him, and now the $15.00 suit looks attractive and respectable, whereas, in comparison with the $40.00 suit seen several days before, a $15.00 suit had no allurements whatever. The customer is likely to purchase the $15.00 suit at this second store.

Student's Exercise for Lesson 11

Write an argument of fifty to seventy-five words stating what you would say to a buyer who admits that his customers like your goods, but says he is prejudiced against them.

CHART SEVEN

The Customer

Appearance	Height, Weight, Age (Vitality); Health; Facial Expression; Cleanliness, Clothing, Bearing (Taste)	Indicating Temperament, Intellect, Feeling, Will Power
Voice and Manner	Expression; Intelligence of Speech; Courtesy	
Statements and Actions	Knowledge of Business; Character	
Appearance of his Office	Cleanliness; Order; Expense of Equipment	
Appearance of his Clerks	Personal Appearance; Efficiency; Evidence of Supervision	

1/6

LESSON 12

WHAT THE SALESMAN MUST KNOW ABOUT THE CUSTOMER'S BUSINESS

You have now considered methods of finding out the dealer's attitude toward your proposition; that is, methods of determining to which one of the five classes of customers (according to the simplicity of the sale) he belongs. You have also considered methods of discovering his temperament by observing his surroundings, appearance, voice and manner, statements, and actions.

You will now study another important series of facts that must be determined before you proceed to make a sale.

You must find out about the size, needs, methods, responsibility, etc., of his business.

The two simplest sources of information are:

1. Your own observation.
2. Direct inquiry of the customer.

The fact that appearances are deceptive and also that some customers, for the purpose of securing credit or satisfying vanity, might misinform you, makes it necessary sometimes for you to seek other sources of information. We will call them:

3. Inquiry from others.
4. Investigation of reports of Commercial Associations.

This does not mean that it is always the salesman's province to busy himself about an investigation of the customer's standing; but there are many salesman of whom this is required in every case. In some instances, salesmen are held responsible by special contracts for the payment of bills of customers; and when the proprietor is himself the salesman, he is liable to incur a heavy loss if he fails to investigate the customer's business standing.

But there are other things to be considered besides the mere condition of the customer's credit. There is the question of the needs of his business. It would be very poor judgment upon the part of a salesman to expect to secure business year after year

from a customer, after he had sold that customer everything he could persuade him to buy regardless of his needs. A salesman of great ability and long experience who makes nearly $10,000.00 a year, is authority for the statement that the hardest part of his work with many of his customers is to prevent them from "overloading"; that is to say, buying more goods than the size of their business will warrant. Of course there are irresponsible salesmen who never expect to sell to the same man twice and who never hope to sell to friends of their customers, but such men as these need not be considered in our series of lessons.

The salesman should make it a point to observe also the methods of the man with whom he is trading. If your customer is a genial, up-to-date, hustling, energetic fellow, he will be likely to have customers of the same sort. It is quite likely that the salesman will find that this dealer needs entirely a different kind of goods from the conservative, slow-going retailer whose list of customers is composed of old citizens of the unprogressive sort.

If the salesman wishes to learn any of the above facts through observation, he must take care not to let that observation get too pointed. A salesman who walks through the length of the store, inquisitively eyeing every clerk and officiously examining every item of merchandise he can see, makes a serious blunder. Salesmen of this sort usually make themselves offensive during the process of an argument or sale by attempting to tell the customer too much about his own business.

The same objection often holds true when a salesman finds out about the business and its needs by direct inquiry from the customer. Questions well intended may be impertinently asked.

But the salesman often reaches the limit of impudence when he makes inquiries of third parties. Sometimes these men report his inquiries to his customers, and if his questions were of an unnecessary and critical sort, it is likely that the salesman's chances to do business with that house in the future will be very slim.

The last method (4) is always a safe one. If a man's credit is in question, it is never objectionable for a salesman to examine the commercial reports of Dun and Bradstreet and others, includ-

ing merchants' lists compiled by associations in the customer's town, if they are reliable.

Altogether, the above can be summarized in the statement that, if the salesman makes inquiries regarding his customer's business, he should always make them in a gentlemanly and interested way. A man of good heart-judgment and common sense will not be liable to err in this matter. Often a conversation can be conducted in such a way as to gain for the salesman all the desired information, and at the same time to convey the impression that the salesman is interested only in the success of the customer's business. There are exceptions to all rules, but most men are not averse to telling of their successes; and, if the salesmen can get his customer to talking about some of the lines he has handled successfully in his business, he will usually find a mine of information as to the desires, tastes, and disposition of his customer, and as to the methods and needs of the business as well. Suppose, for instance, you are selling a hat and notice that many men on the street are wearing this hat, which you know they must have purchased from your customer. A well-directed remark upon this topic will naturally start your customer into a discussion of the very matters about which you wish to hear.

For instance, suppose you say: "Mr. Jones, you know the first thing I saw when I got off the train this morning was a group of four men standing in front of the station, and three of these had that Sphinx hat on." The chances are that Mr. Jones will say: "Yes, I had a good season with that hat."

Often you can induce a man to talk freely about the sale of an article in some such way as the one just mentioned.

In conclusion, it must not be forgotten that your object in ascertaining various facts about your customer's business should be to enable you to help him in his buying, and not merely to gratify your curiosity.

Student's Exercise for Lesson 12

You are selling a line of lawn mowers. Write a paragraph containing fifty to seventy-five words asking Mr. Robinson, a hardware dealer,

what lines he carries, telling him that you are asking the question in order to find out what machines you must compete with for his trade.

CHART EIGHT

THE THING SOLD

- GOODS
  - 1. Description of Goods
    - Staples and Specialties
    - Luxuries and Necessities
    - Other Classifications
      - 1. Sizes
      - 2. Qualities
      - 3. Colors
      - 4. Styles
      - 5. Shapes
      - 6. Quantities
      - 7. Prices (including discounts, etc.)
      - 8. Methods of use
      - 9. Reputation of house
      - 10. History of article
      - 11. Methods, manufacture
      - 12. Methods, production
      - 13. Extent of use
      - 14. Opinions of others
      - 15. Efficiency
      - 16. Ingredients
      - 17. Equipment
  - 2. Your House—Especially the plans and propositions of sales department
  - 3. Competitor's Goods
  - 4. Competitor's House
  - 5. The Market and Fashions
  - 6. How to Handle your Samples
    - Care of Samples
    - Display of Samples
- SERVICES
  - Your Personal Services
  - Your Firm's Services
    - 1. Advertising
    - 2. Auditing
    - 3. Advisory
    - 4. Transportation
    - 5. Storage, etc.

Read the above chart before studying Lesson 13, and compare its outlines with the smaller outlines given in the lesson. Consult it in review after completing Lesson 13.

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PART III

THE THING SOLD

LESSON 13

GENERAL ANALYSIS OF THE THING SOLD

A statement that we are now leaving the consideration of the customer and passing to the consideration of the thing sold would be improper. This is because we must, throughout our entire course, have in mind all three factors of the sale; the salesman, the customer, and the thing sold.

Let us say, therefore, that we are adding to what we have already considered the specific consideration of the thing sold. This refers not only to goods or merchandise, but to anything else that may be offered for sale, as for instance, personal services.

Broadly considered, things sold are divided into two classes:

Necessities
Luxuries

It is very hard to draw a line of distinction between a necessity and a luxury. What is a necessity differs with different people. To yourself, for instance, warm clothing is a necessity. To a savage near the equator it is not. To a sick person, medical attention is a necessity; to a well person it is not. To one used to hardships, many articles of food and clothing, which have become necessities to us, are luxuries.

Things sold may also be divided into the two general classes:

Staples
Specialties

By *staples,* we refer to all of the principal commodities of trade, those things that are regularly produced or manufactured for general use by an established trade. By *specialties,* we refer to other lines of goods not so well known or universally used, though at times and for certain businesses, they are perhaps even more important than certain staples. Attention is called to these classifications to impress upon you the fact that different arguments must be used by the salesman in disposing of a luxury from those he uses in selling a necessity, and similarly that a very different style of selling talk must be used in accomplishing the sale of a specialty from that used when the thing to be sold is a staple.

A thorough study of his goods is the most important requirement of the salesman. It is not logical to think you can sell one thing without studying it because you have sold another.

Herewith is presented a list of points concerning which the salesman of any product must be informed.

1. Sizes
2. Qualities
3. Colors
4. Styles
5. Shapes
6. Quantities
7. Prices (including discounts, terms, etc.)
8. Methods of use
9. Reputation of house
10. History of article
11. Methods of manufacture
12. Methods of production
13. Extent of use
14. Opinions of others
15. Efficiency
16. Ingredients
17. Equipment

Study the above very carefully. Add other items if you can. The list above is not arranged in any logical order, except that

some of the less easily understood points are mentioned toward the end.

To illustrate, in a small way, how each of these points should be studied, discussions of "size," "color" and "terms" are presented. These discussions are not at all complete, but are merely suggestive.

Sizes

The absurd mistakes made by many customers in the matter of size afford to salesmen much amusement and vexation. This is especially true in the retail trade. It is well known that many ladies, and men, too, for that matter, insist upon having a size of shoe or glove which the salesman knows will not fit. The trick of putting a wrong size-mark on goods in order to persuade the customer that they fit, is an old one.

The annoyance from customers of this sort is so great in some lines of business that merchants leave size-marks off the goods in order to avoid any discussions with customers.

Often the matter of sizes is an important consideration in the making of a sale. A simple illustration of this is seen in the case of the linen collar for men. Several years ago, these ran only in half sizes. Then certain dealers brought out quarter sizes and had great success with them because it enabled them to meet the needs of customers better.

There are many other articles in which the matter of sizes is a very important consideration. In the sale of large articles, such as stoves, furniture, etc., it is evident at once that this is one of the important matters.

In selling stationery it is essential to know the sizes that are in most common use for various purposes and what sizes will cut to advantage from the stocks regularly carried by the house.

In making displays of goods it is essential to know what sizes represent the most ideally proportioned and perfect models of the styles to be shown.

It is not sufficient for a salesman to know the sizes in which the brand he carries run. He must know all about the sizes of the article wherever manufactured.

Colors

There are very few articles of merchandise manufactured in which the selection of color is not important. Sometimes one color will be cheaper than other colors. For instance, any unbleached or undyed article is usually cheaper than an article that is bleached or dyed. Probably the difference in prices on account of color is most marked in the case of precious stones, where certain rare colors will command fabulous prices, though the stones may not differ from other stones in any other respect. Often colors are chosen because of their durability. A red or black stripe in a fancy cloth will not fade so readily as a pink or lavender. Again, men often select gray clothes because they will not show dust easily. Frequently the matter of color is determined upon for the sake of convenience or comfort; as, for instance, green is used on a billiard table or for a lamp shade for the purpose of protecting the eye. It will pay any salesman to look carefully into the color of the goods he is selling so that he will be informed as to the reason why certain colors are to be preferred. The clothing salesman or the dry goods salesman, of course, realizes this readily. But salesmen in other lines are too apt to pass carelessly by such a matter as not worthy of their thought.

Terms

The terms offered in various lines of business are very wide in their scope. One method of expressing terms is as follows:

2 off 10
1 off 30
Net 60

The first one means that if you pay within ten days from the date of the bill, you may take 2% off. The second, if you pay within thirty days, you may take 1% off. The third, that the bill must be paid at net price (i. e., without discount) in sixty days.

Cash discounts. Small discounts like the above are usually offered for the purpose of securing a prompt settlement of ac-

count. These are called CASH DISCOUNTS. Though separately considered they are small, in the aggregate they usually amount to a great deal, depending, of course, on the size of the business of the buyer. Many large firms consider their saving from discounts as one of the most, if not the most, important feature of their business. It can readily be seen that, quite apart from the fact that it will strengthen his credit to pay promptly, a buyer can save money by taking advantage of all his discounts. Suppose a customer is offered 2 off 10, net 20 days; that is at the rate of 6% a month, or 72% a year. Many a man who looks with scorn on 2% would be shocked to learn that he is losing $500.00 to $1,000.00 in the course of a year through his failure to take advantage of discounts. Men frequently fail in business because they do not look to this matter. The thing works two ways. They not only lose discount money, but they injure their reputations, for people think them unable to pay; which, indeed, they are likely to become.

DISCOUNT AS A CONSIDERATION. Often discounts run to very large amounts, even 50% or 60% being offered as an extra inducement to secure trade. There is, unfortunately, a large class of people in the world who will not buy a hat at $3.00, but if you mark it $6.00 and then offer 50% discount they will buy at once. These are the men who look wide of the fundamental principle laid down in Lesson 1, that a fair bargain must benefit both parties. They imagine that the only way to make a profit is to compel the salesman to part with his goods at far below their actual value. Men of this kind are rarely informed as to prices, being as a rule ignorant buyers, and the salesman accomplishes his purpose by putting his price up in the first place. Another interesting feature of the subject of terms and discounts is that often a series of discounts is offered on the same purchase. For instance, a well known corporation secures discounts from some firms somewhat as follows: 10% off from the list price simply as an ordinary trade discount; 10% off what is left in consideration of the trade of all branches of the corporation for the article in question; 3% off the remainder for cash.

TRADE DISCOUNTS. When prices are listed in a catalog, as in the hardware business, discounts are used largely to save correcting the whole list when prices change, one change of discount often covering prices on one hundred articles, each at a different list price.

THE F. O. B. SPECIFICATION is an important part of the terms of sale and should never be overlooked. It makes considerable difference whether you or the customer pays carrying charges, and the point should always be plainly specified.

DATING is another point that is a natural part of the terms of sale. Many houses allow long dating in order to induce early buying, as many factories make up all goods "to order" and carry no stock made up.

In some lines goods must be paid for in ten days from date of shipment, which often necessitates payment while goods are in transit. In such cases it is customary to draw on the customer, and if such draft is to be made, the customer should always understand the arrangement thoroughly.

In General

Each of the points mentioned in the list at the beginning of this chapter should be studied thoroughly and in detail as you have studied sizes, colors, and terms. The relative importance of each point will depend upon the kind of article studied.

Student's Exercise for Lesson 13

(The student may select any one exercise.)

1. You are a collar salesman. Write fifty to seventy-five words to convince Mr. Johnson that he should buy your collar because it runs in quarter-inch sizes, while your competitor's runs only in half-inch sizes.

2. You are a farm implement salesman. Write fifty to seventy-five words to convince a farmer that he should buy your plow because you will extend to him better terms than your competitor, who asks a slightly smaller price, but whose terms are cash.

3. You are the competitor of the salesman mentioned in exercise 2.

Write fifty to seventy-five words to convince the farmer that he should take your lower price and pay the cash.

NOTE. In exercises 2 and 3, consider that the difference in price is exactly equal to the discount offered by one of the salesmen.

LESSON 14

THE THING SOLD—Continued

Examine once more the list of points suggested in Lesson 13, under the heading "Description of Goods." Take one of these points, the topic of price, and see how it is affected by the other items mentioned in the list under "Description of Goods," and other points.

1. SIZES. Ordinarily smaller sizes of articles cost less and larger ones more. Yet there are some cases, as for instance, certain kinds of watches, in which it is cheaper to make a large article than a small one.

2. COLORS. Sometimes the beauty of a color is a justification for increasing the price of an article. Sometimes the expense in manufacturing that color affects the price. Sometimes the serviceability of the color affects the price.

3. STYLES. Many elements are to be considered in the style of a piece of goods. Sometimes it is expensive because it is unusual or difficult to make; sometimes because it is attractive.

4. QUANTITIES. It is not sufficient to know the quantities in which your goods are measured. Find out why they are measured as they are, and be prepared to show every advantage that can be shown from this when talking price. Certain articles once sold by measure are now sold by weight, to arrive at a fair method of fixing price. The proper handling or care of an article may require that it be sold in the quantities in which you sell it. The purchase of unusually large or unusually small quantities, however measured, affects price.

5. PURPOSES AND METHODS OF USE. If the article is adapted to many purposes, each one must be understood and explained.

If it is simple of operation, this may affect its price. If it is a time-saving or labor-saving device, its price will also be affected by that fact, as will be the case if it is a pleasure-giving device.

6. Terms of its sale. The nominal price of goods is often affected by the terms of their sale. If there are discounts, they, of course, affect the price. Or if there are time payments, that frequently has an important effect. Sometimes a great deal of money can be saved through payment by installments, and, in any of these cases, the salesman must be thoroughly prepared to present all arguments in favor of the particular plan.

7. Reputation of your house. If your firm's reputation is such as to serve as a guarantee of quality, the retail dealer will be able to secure a higher price for your goods than for goods of similar quality made by firms of inferior standing. Your firm's reputation for quality, extent of its advertising, popularity of its goods and all similar advantages will affect the price of your goods.

8. The history of the article affects the price in many instances. This is especially true if the article is valuable because of its associations, or its foreign make, or because it is a curio. The salesman who is thoroughly acquainted with the history of an article, therefore, has arguments at his command that will prove convincing when the price is under discussion.

9. Cost of production and manufacture. The salesman must explain the cost of production and manufacture to his customer in such a convincing way as to make the price seem reasonable.

Furniture can be varnished by dipping into a barrel of varnish (a favorite method with cheap chairs, etc.) much more cheaply than it can be varnished by hand with a brush, but the results are different.

10. Extent of use. If the public demands a certain article, the dealer can be required to pay more for it on account of that demand, because he may not have to advertise it so extensively or push it so energetically. Sometimes it can be sold at a much higher price than its actual intrinsic value on account of this popularity. For instance, the once popular Teddy Bears sold for $2.00

to $5.00, when intrinsically they were not worth near that amount.

11. OPINIONS OF OTHERS. Frequently a customer thinks a price is wrong, but can be convinced if he is clearly shown that others whose judgment he values consider the price right.

12. The INCREASING VALUE of the article is often a most important feature in settling its price. For instance, a man buys a lot sometimes at more than its ordinary appraisement because he is convinced that the price is going up.

13. Sometimes the article is "self-supporting"—that is, it pays for itself. This is an argument frequently advanced for the typewriter, adding machine, dictating machine, and other machines that enable employers to conduct their business with fewer employes. This argument can also be advanced in favor of productive articles, such as flowers, trees, and live stock.

14. The guarantees your house makes often affect the price considerably. For instance, if you agree to refund the money or make some other reparation if the goods are not found to be as represented, you can more readily secure the price you ask.

15. The PRICE OF YOUR COMPETITOR'S GOODS often affects the reasonableness of your price. A buyer may believe that you are asking too much profit, yet if you can show him that you are asking less than your competitor he may be persuaded to buy of you.

16. The REPUTATION OF YOUR COMPETITOR'S GOODS or your competitor's house, if unfavorable, will have a tendency to enable you to get better prices for your goods. It is a bad plan, however, for a salesman to use this argument too boldly.

17. The FASHIONS, if they have created a demand for the goods you have, affect the price favorably.

This lesson has gone into considerable detail in naming some things that affect the price of goods, yet it barely skims the surface. There are innumerable points affecting prices, and since the same is true regarding sizes, colors, styles, and all the other topics to be considered in gaining a thorough knowledge of your goods, then the study of your goods is a matter of prime impor-

tance. Study the foregoing suggestions until you are able to apply them to any item that you have to sell. It is as foolish for a salesman to try to sell goods without learning how to describe them attractively, as it would be for an advertiser to commit the same error. Always study the article you have for sale so that you know every possible thing you could say about it that will be of interest to your customer or of assistance to you.

Student's Exercise for Lesson 14

(Fifty to seventy-five words)

You are a clothing salesman. Describe the advantages of your line as to color, using the name of your customer, Mr. Kemper, in your exercise.

LESSON 15

THE THING SOLD—Continued

Let us see how another of the items in our list of descriptive points can be affected by the remaining items on the list. We shall take "size" as an illustration.

The QUALITY will affect the sizes in the case of some articles where large sizes would be too expensive; also, in some cases where a better quality can be secured in some sizes than in others.

The COLOR will affect the size of an article when the coloring matter used is expensive.

The STYLE will affect the size in a very marked degree, especially in the case of clothing, furniture, or ornaments where there is necessity of fit. Style regulates the size of almost everything when there is not a mechanical reason that it should remain in a fixed size from year to year.

QUANTITIES affect sizes in a very direct way, as the sizes of some articles are regulated by the quantities in which they must be sold or used. An advertiser issuing 100 circulars may not give

any attention to whether the sheet is 8 x 10 or 9 x 12. But if he issues 1,000,000, the slight difference in size will be a matter materially affecting the cost.

PRICE and TERMS regulate sizes in cases where the customer's desires as to prices and terms must be met by selling smaller sizes.

METHODS OF USE affect size; large, heavy articles will sometimes stand wear better than small ones, and small articles will often prove more convenient than large ones.

THE REPUTATION OF THE HOUSE has a decided effect upon the size of the product, when an article of a certain size is ordered and promised.

THE HISTORY OF THE ARTICLE, of course, affects the size and shape, since we are prone to do what our forefathers have done, and to use articles of a given size and shape because they have been in that given size and shape for many years.

METHODS OF MANUFACTURE affect sizes; economy in production demands that certain things shall be made in certain sizes, so as to cut well out of the piece.

What is true of methods of manufacture is equally true of methods of *production.*

The EXTENT OF USE also affects the size; certain articles must be made in certain sizes to prevent the damage that it is known certain sizes will receive in transportation, changes of climate, etc., which might not be true of other sizes.

Certainly nothing affects sizes much more definitely than the *opinions of users;* this is the very thing that causes certain articles to be made in given sizes.

To prove that the size of an article is affected by its *shape* requires no argument; a brittle article designed to pass through a six-inch hole could not support its own weight if it were half a mile long.

The EFFICIENCY of an article certainly affects its size; if it can be made of more use by being made small or large, the maker will at once increase its efficiency by altering its size.

The EQUIPMENT of an article affects its size; in many cases a large size is desired to contain a large equipment.

Size is affected by LOCATION, when the space in the given location requires that the article be small or large in order either to fit or to be appropriate in appearance.

The INGREDIENTS of which an article is made also have a most direct effect upon its size, since some ingredients will cause the article to shrink and others will compel it to expand. Some materials are stronger than others. If a wooden beam is replaced by a steel one, the steel beam can be much smaller and will do the same work.

Just one point has been mentioned in connection with each item above, merely to show you that each one of these items or facts about your goods must be taken in correlation with all others. The above paragraphs can scarcely be taken as anything else than merely suggestive. We shall not consume time by taking up each one of these items or points of interest regarding an article, and showing how all the others affect it. The student may do so for himself with a few or all of the articles, but at least with one. The point to be gained is, that such an exercise as this will impress upon the student the necessity of his understanding every detail about his goods because the investigation or examination of the salesman's goods in any one feature is sure to bring to his attention other features connected with it, to which he has never before given his attention. After all, your success as a salesman will depend upon your knowledge of the three factors of a sale, of which the *thing sold* is one.

The salesman undertaking the study of any product can scarcely do it in a better way than to consider all the points named in the foregoing list, and to consider each point as it is or may be affected by all the rest. This is a big task. There are seventeen points, each to be considered by itself and in its relation to sixteen other points, making a total of nearly three hundred points about the goods to be thought over and analyzed—a laborious task, but one that will result in an analysis of your goods that it is scarcely possible for you to make as thoroughly in any other way.

If the student will take up each of the points mentioned in Lesson 13 as we have already taken up the topics of prices

and sizes, applying them to a specific article, he will *learn* his article in a wonderfully definite way.

The following story will illustrate the value of study and analysis of the product one is handling. A soap salesman wrote his house that a competitor was selling a certain scented toilet soap of same weight, odor, color, and wrapper as his own at twenty per cent less than his price, and that he could get no business on that article. The manager went out and bought a piece of the competitor's soap, cut it up and examined it. He found that the color did not run clear through. It was bathed. The wrapper alone was perfumed—not the soap. It was easy to sell the good article when this was known, but the salesman should have discovered it for himself and saved several orders that he lost.

Student's Exercise for Lesson 15

Write as tersely as possible a paragraph showing how styles are modified or influenced by one of the items in the list given in Lesson 13, selecting any article for illustration.

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LESSON 16

THE SALESMAN'S HOUSE

In addition to knowing about the goods themselves you must know many things about your house.

History of the House

You should know the history of your house. You should know the names of salesmen and proprietors who were interested in it before you came. Otherwise you will be constantly running across customers who know more about the history of your house than you do yourself, men who may desire to talk to you about these old fellows—and you can give them no information. How disappointed an old customer often is when a new salesman comes

to town who can tell him nothing about what the former representative of his house is doing, where he has gone, or anything else of interest about his house. This is, however, only one of the minor reasons why you should know the facts above mentioned. You must be in thorough touch with the history of your house, if possible, for many reasons. It will strengthen your confidence in your firm to know how it has done business for forty or fifty years. Or if it is a new firm that has just become prominent, it will be of interest and value to you and give energy and spice to your work to know this. Any good firm will bear looking into; and if a firm has not a clear record, you should know this.

It is as important for you as a salesman to know the history of the business with which you are connected, and of other houses in a similar line, as it is for you as a citizen to understand the national history. We learn lessons from history. A knowledge of the mistakes and successes of the business in the past will prevent us from making the same mistakes and inspire us to repeat the successes.

The Sales Department

It is especially important, however, for you to understand the plans and propositions of your own department, that is, the sales department. There are many firms that go on the principle that if a salesman is thoroughly familiar with their goods and with their propositions, the sale will take care of itself. There is a great error in this, of course, for no selling will "take care of itself"; but it points the way toward a great truth. The fundamental preparation for your work as a salesman is a thorough knowledge of what you are trying to sell and the terms upon which it will be offered to customers.

Facts About the Business

There are possibly no two firms that expect their salesmen to know exactly the same facts about the business. The variety of opinions on this topic runs the whole gamut. There are some

houses whose salesmen never go inside the office or the factory and never have any acquaintance with their employers except by correspondence. There are other firms that refuse to put a man on the road until he has spent a year or two in the factory or stock room, learning all the details of the manufacturing or buying end of the business.

It is safe to say, however, that the average business house of today prefers its salesmen to be thoroughly conversant with all of the facts pertaining to the goods and their manufacture, handling, and transportation, since these facts and the arguments based upon them are frequently, even usually, very important factors in a salesman's success.

Suppose you are selling an article that is required by law or public opinion to be made under sanitary conditions to prevent the spread of disease or to guarantee freshness, a good state of preservation, or other points of quality. Such requirements are essential in the grocery line. A salesman of canned groceries not informed as to how his goods are protected against disease germs, would miss many sales that would be readily made by a competitor thoroughly qualified to inform his customers about the sanitary conditions under which his goods were manufactured. The same illustration holds good regarding almost any characteristic or attribute of the goods. For instance, take the matter of size. In many cases it is necessary for you to guarantee that the size will remain the same, that is, that it will not expand nor shrink. A knowledge of how the goods were manufactured may help you explain this point.

Again, take the matter of color. A man can see what the color is when you are showing him the goods, but only a knowledge of how the goods were made will enable you to explain to him why the color is fast color and will neither fade nor change in any other way, why it is non-poisonous, etc.

From the above we have discovered that a knowledge of the inner workings of the house is valuable in helping you understand your goods, but there are many other ways in which it is beneficial. It will enable you to tell interesting things about your

product, and often you can arouse a customer's interest in your goods by telling him some peculiar and remarkable fact about their manufacture or the way they are handled. How much better it is to say to the customer, "When I was in the house three weeks ago, I saw over a carload of these books ready for shipment to every state in the union. The manager told me that the sales have reached 82,500." How much better it is to say something like the above than merely to say, "These books are sold in large quantities."

Of course, many facts can be learned from your house by correspondence, but it is generally conceded that the salesman will never tell them as enthusiastically if he knows nothing about methods of manufacture, as he will if he is filled to the brim with information gathered from personal observation.

You have learned that the salesman will know more about the goods, will describe them more enthusiastically, will make fewer errors, will impress his customer more favorably, and will understand the plans and propositions of the sales department more thoroughly if he keeps in close touch with his house. It will be seen at once that in addition to all of the reasons above given, the salesman will get an inspiration through frequent visits to the house, and an understanding of its processes of manufacture that will be of great value.

But the salesman must bear in mind constantly the very important fact that while it is desirable to know all these things about his house, it is very much more important that he learn not to worry or bother about things that are going on in the house, nor to become unduly busy in concerning himself with the affairs that are not connected with his daily work. It is the failure of some salesmen to recognize this important principle that causes certain houses to discourage visits to the house by their salesmen.

A man can get into more difficulties in one day attending to other people's business than in a year attending to his own. Remember that, and remember that you are to sell goods. Whatever investigation you may make of the history and matters of your house must be solely for the purpose of helping you to sell goods.

Be Loyal to Your House

When a man gets out of step, he is only one remove from being out of line.

When the marching step was invented, it was by a general who appreciated the overwhelming enthusiasm of uniform motion. He may have been Alexander, Gideon, or Caesar; but whoever he was, he understood mass psychology.

A hundred men swinging in perfect step across a bridge may shake it down; and for this reason armies for hundreds of years have broken step in crossing bridges.

In uniformity of motion there is precision, speed, and enthusiasm.

To be in step is to feel the thrill of comradeship, the enthusiasm of numbers, the electric voltage of a completed circuit.

The men who are in step in business are the men who believe it can be done—and when a man believes it can be done, he usually does it.

We should pity the man who is out of step.

A new generation comes upon the scene of action, a generation of young men filled with life and hope; a generation that is studying business power, self-confidence, and mass psychology.

The newcomers believe in themselves. They act with uniformity and with a will.

The man who is out of step views them with a snarl, shelters himself behind logic and a sneer, says it can't be done, and watches the marchers sweep by him.

To be out of step means more than simply to disagree with other men as to plans and methods. A man can be a chronic debater and yet be able to get into line.

It is when a man simply can't believe in anything that other men are working for that he fails utterly, either as employe or employer.

Get into step and be loyal to your house. It will keep you happy.

Student's Exercise for Lesson 16

Select any article from the following list, or you may select any other article you wish:

Typewriter	Fountain Pen	Lawn Mower	Diamond Ring
Suit of Clothes	Hat	Rug	Advertising Space
Sack of Flour	Automobile	Dictionary	City Lot
Riding Plow	Separator	Fence Wire	Traction Engine

You are salesman for this article. Write fifty to seventy-five words in answer to the statement, "Your goods are not well made." Refer in your answer to some method of manufacture or production used by your house to produce well-made goods.

LESSON 17

THE COMPETITOR'S HOUSE

Not only must you know about your goods and your house, but you will find it much to the point to learn about your competitor's goods and your competitor's house. As a general rule, it pays a salesman to talk about and think about only his own goods and not to spend much time in the discussion of those sold by his competitor.

You can always get more business by pushing your own article than by speaking disparagingly of your competitor's article.

It is true that there are times when every salesman must be prepared to speak precisely and truthfully of the goods of his competitor. Remember, however, that you have accomplished nothing when you have destroyed faith in your competitor's goods unless by the contrast you have fastened the buyer's mind upon the excellence of your own.

What would you think of a pencil salesman who would advance to the buyer and say, handing him a pencil: "What do you think of this for a pencil?" The buyer would use the pencil, whereupon the point would break, and the buyer would say that it was not a good pencil. To this the salesman would say: "Of course it is not; for that is sold by my competitor;" and imme-

diately leave the store without any attempt to sell his own goods. You would undoubtedly think him a fool; and yet many salesmen constantly talk against their competitor's goods in much the same manner, forgetting that it is far more important to call attention to the virtues of their own goods than to point out the faults of their competitor's. Let the competitor's goods be secondary if mentioned at all.

The Market and Fashions

Other important things that must be studied by the salesman are the market and the fashions. The salesman who does not subscribe regularly to the trade magazines and other publications devoted to the interests of his business, makes a serious mistake, as does the salesman who fails to collect all the advertisements of his own house and his competitor's house that he can possibly secure and study them thoroughly. In addition to these things, the salesman should make use of that keen power of observation which we discussed in a former lesson.

His observation should include not only the desires, tastes, character, and disposition of his customer; but it should broaden out and take in the entire field of retail trade upon which his customer depends. He must always have an open eye to see what people want, what people are having, and what they insist upon having.

What would you think of a salesman who sold plate glass and art glass, who upon going into an up-to-date city would not take the pains to look at the windows of houses and great business establishments to see what the world was doing in the line in which he was interested?

Do not take any one else's word for these things. Form the habit of observing for yourself.

What You Must Know About the Thing Sold

We have now studied the five general divisions under the heading, "The thing sold." They are:

1. Facts about your goods
2. Facts about your house
3. Facts about your competitor's goods
4. Facts about your competitor's house
5. The market and fashions

Sales of Things Other than Merchandise

The last five lessons have given a method of analyzing an article of merchandise. The same rules of analysis apply to the study of anything else that is offered for sale. Advertising space, services, privileges, concessions, office room, seats at an entertainment, or anything else to be sold, should be analyzed by the salesman by a similar method before a sale is attempted. The salesman should understand the thing sold; he should "know what he is talking about," no matter what special thing he has for sale.

Sale of a Firm's Services

ADVERTISING. Many big firms do nothing except write and handle advertisements for others. Ad-writing specialists are to be found in every large city or town in the United States.

AUDITING. Firms and individuals make a business of auditing books, systematizing records and accounting systems, etc.

SYSTEMATIZING. This is a growing branch of special service. It consists of analyzing a business, and originating a system whereby it can be handled with the greatest possible efficiency, combining ease and accuracy.

ADVISORY. There are thousands of men employed in the world as advisors. The directors of large companies are sometimes retained merely for their advisory services. A large part of the work of lawyers and doctors is merely advisory.

TRANSPORTATION. This is the thing sold by railroads, steamship companies, street car lines, taxicab and livery companies, express companies, the U. S. Post Office Department, etc. Transportation is one of our largest industries.

STORAGE AND LIVING ACCOMMODATIONS. The owners of buildings which are rented for the occupancy of people, animals, or merchandise, must sell their privilege of occupancy. They, or the real estate agents whom they employ, must be good salesmen if the income on the property is to be steady.

In short, every person or firm with services for sale must depend upon the salesmanship element of business for success, just as a manufacturing or retailing establishment does, and the same principles of salesmanship must apply, perhaps requiring a greater degree of proficiency here than in any other line except promotion. It is this consideration that gives the topic of salesmanship its broad significance as the fundamental science of modern business.

Student's Exercise for Lesson 17

Select any of the articles referred to in the list in Lesson 16 and write either of the following exercises:

1. Give three interesting facts that might arise from your knowledge of the history of your house.
2. Give three facts that might be interesting arising from comparisons with the competitor's goods.
3. Give three facts that might be interesting about the markets and fashions in this particular line of goods.

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LESSON 18

THE SALE OF PERSONAL SERVICES

Every man's services must be sold to his employer. Personal services are bought, just as goods are bought. The lawyer sells his services to his client, the doctor to his patient, the preacher to his congregation, the President of the United States to his nation, the railroad "hand" to his section boss.

In selling services the elements of salesmanship are the same as in selling merchandise. They are:

Accuracy
Industry
Personality
Argument
Persuasion

and all other qualities akin to them.

The factors are similar:

The Salesman (Employe)
The Customer (Employer)
The Thing Sold (Personal Services)

If the student should never be a salesman of merchandise, the knowledge gained in this course in regard to scientific salesmanship would be of equal importance to him in his effort to dispose of his personal services. His success in selling his personal services depends on his knowledge of these three factors and how to combine them to bring about a sale. He must

1. Study to improve himself (the salesman)
2. Study the employer (his customer)
3. Learn to analyze his personal services (the thing sold) so as to describe or demonstrate their value successfully to his employer, the customer.

The most important sale that any salesman ever makes is when he sells his own services.

There is nothing more important than the ability of a salesman to get a job, unless, perhaps, it is his ability to get a promotion. The first is an initial order—the second is a repeat order.

At the moment that he gets his job, if at no other time in his life, the value of good salesmanship is paramount.

It is worth years of study and practice sometimes to be able to use five minutes just exactly right. It may take a huntsman a lifetime to learn to shoot with deadly aim, but when he tries his skill in the presence of a lion or a bear, his skill is worth all and more than he ever put into it.

A life success frequently depends upon a single conversation, and a salesman whose fate depends absolutely upon a single moment needs years of study to prepare him for that moment. It may never come again.

In its broad sense, salesmanship is not confined to the selling of merchandise; in fact, in its more important phases, it is not the selling of merchandise, but the selling of personal services that counts.

The sale of personal services as compared with the sale of merchandise is difficult in proportion to its greater importance.

The profitable sale of merchandise is sometimes easy. The profitable sale of personal services is always hard.

The scientific differences between the sale of merchandise and the sale of services deserve a careful analysis. Let us observe their similarities and their differences.

The carelessness of many people in selling their services is most phenomenal, not to say criminal.

Any employment agency with large experience in assisting young people to get positions will instantly concede the truth of the statement that ninety per cent of the young people who leave school to enter the business world have no idea what kind of firm they desire to work for. To the average young man or young woman a wholesale concern is as good as a retail; a bank is as good as a factory. The great cry is, "Give me a job."

And how wicked it is! When a young man sells his services he is selling his life blood. He is selling his heart and soul, so far as his business interests are concerned.

He should proceed with the transaction as carefully as a promoter would analyze and construct a prospectus for the mines of Ophir, for he is disposing of his "Pearl of Greatest Price."

Nothing else in life is or can be so important to a man as the work in which he engages. He is to spend eight to twelve of every sixteen waking hours in company with it, and yet, with the world full of businesses of an infinite variety, some of which hold joy for him and others misery, some fortune and others want, some contentment and others fretfulness, he deliberately closes

his eyes and picks out a job as one would go blindfolded to a grab-bag at a church sale and take the first thing that his fingers touch.

Men whose brows are furrowed with care, whose foreheads are silvered by years of ill-rewarded toil, tell stories by the thousands of lost opportunities of youth. Yet boys with life before them and the world to select from, the entire country to live in, life fresh and rosy, with no defeats yet marked up against them, carelessly make their pathetic way into the first office door that opens and chain themselves to misery for life.

Nor are such young people careless only in the selection of the kind of business in which they engage. They are thoughtless in selecting the kind of employer they want. It is more important for a young man to select a good employer than it is for an employer to select a good helper, for the odds of life are always in favor of the employer. He can discharge an incompetent helper and hire some one else without a particular loss of reputation; but a young man who becomes disappointed in an employer and finally quits his business, is always open to the suspicion of having failed to give satisfaction, even when the person who did not give satisfaction was the employer.

If high-class merchandise should be sold only to dealers of reputation, in order that its high standard may be preserved, how much more is this true of life service. How important it is that a young man should enter the employ of a man with whom it will be a credit to be connected.

If salesmanship is important when one is disposing of a dozen boxes of collars, how much more vital it is when one is disposing of the greatest thing that God has given him—the ability to work.

And if it is important for the continuous prosperity of a business that repeat orders should continually be received, how much more essential that when the young man or woman has secured a position he shall be able from year to year to get a repeat order—at an advanced price.

The world is full of high-class workers who constantly assert that they are not getting as much as they are worth.

Their claim is a true one so far as it represents the difference between their technical ability and their pay.

It is utterly false, if judged by salesmanship standards. Every man should be able to sell his services for all they are worth under the prevailing economic conditions.

Even under the most adverse conditions, there are always to be found a large number of men who are able to get all that they are worth for their labor; and this, in almost every case, is due to skillful salesmanship.

If a man never expects to sell a dollar's worth of merchandise in his life, the study of salesmanship will amply repay years of effort on the one occasion when he undertakes to sell his services.

Exercise for Lesson 18

You have applied to Jackson & Co. for a position as bookkeeper, stenographer, or salesman, and have been granted a personal interview with Mr. Jackson. Write in one hundred ~~to one hundred fifty~~ words what you would say to him in regard to your qualifications, ability, willingness, and enthusiasm.

CHART NINE

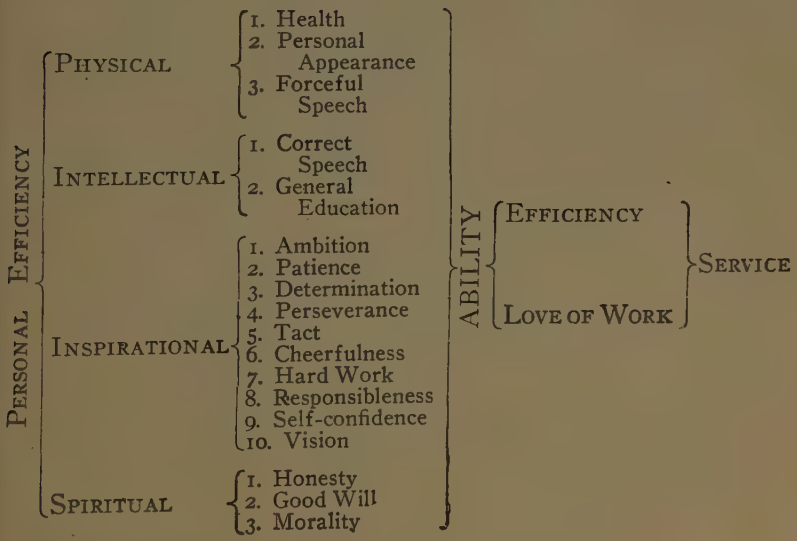

CHART TEN

- PHYSICAL
  - Health
    - Freedom from Disease
    - Vigor
  - Appearance
    - Cleanliness
    - Clothing
    - Bearing
  - Forceful Speech

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PART IV

The Salesman

LESSON 19

SELF-IMPROVEMENT

We now come to the consideration of the third factor of the sale—the salesman himself.

The most important factor connected with any proposition is the man behind it.

The argument that salesmen are born and not made is partly true, but mainly false. The element of falsity lies in the fact that those who make the statement forget that a strong personality can be cultivated.

This would be a sorry world indeed, if the only respects in which one could improve himself were those the measure of which may be taken by the yard stick, the computing machine, and the scales. It is illogical and unworthy of belief that it is possible to improve in knowledge by study and impossible to improve personality and character in the same way. One may broaden and deepen his inner self just as he may add to his knowledge of facts or to his bank account.

Shall we say that a man can study his goods and increase his knowledge of them, but that it is impossible for him to increase his understanding of himself? Shall we say that a man can analyze his customer's state of mind and learn to understand it, but not be able to increase his own power to win the customer's mind over to himself?

The fact is that personality, like everything else in the world, is not a vague, intangible, indescribable, indefinable, nebulous, hazy attribute of man, but is in truth a definite and positive factor of a man's being that is capable of being improved by direct and practical methods.

There is no more absurd and dangerous opinion for the student to have than that a good personality is purely a "gift" in the sense that it cannot be acquired.

The idea that one can learn only by experience is an especially absurd and dangerous idea when applied to character building. The whole history of the world's advancement disproves it, for we are able to advance beyond what others have accomplished by learning what they know, and making our start from that point.

Lessons are expensive, and the man who is incapable of learning except by personal experience usually finds himself at the end of his rope before he has finished obtaining his tuition.

The man who learns by experience is far ahead of him to whom his past teaches nothing; but he is just as far behind the cool-headed fellow who knows how to profit by the experiences of others.

But right here is a point that is important: In judging the experiences of others, one must judge them scientifically, through the microscope of facts and figures, and learn exactly why certain causes produce certain results.

If one's judgments are influenced by fear instead of science, he will argue failure because he has seen failure; and fear is our worst enemy.

To reason, "My health will fail because Jones' health failed," is to become mentally subject to disease.

To reason, "My health will fail if I keep unreasonable hours, because Jones went from a four-hour bed to the cemetery," is sensible.

Measure yourself by acts and results, not by people. Accept not the results attained by others, but the relation between acts and results; and accept them, when they are plain and certain, without putting your own fingers in the fire. This isn't necessary.

Business Efficiency and Character

The object of the study and discipline of character is twofold:

1. The attainment of moral excellence.

2. The attainment of personal efficiency, which, in the case of the salesman, means business efficiency.

Before taking up the details of the study of personal efficiency, let us study the scientific, or philosophical, analysis of character building.

In the first place, we know that men live and learn and grow through their contact with *facts*. This contact may be by personal experience or it may be by study of the experiences of others.

After a man has encountered a large number of facts of a similar kind, he begins to associate them and to deduce from them certain *rules*.

Now, a rule is a prescribed form of regular procedure, and often has exceptions. The old phrase, "The exception proves the rule," means that the fact that there is an exception proves that there must exist a rule to which the exception is taken.

After coming in contact with a sufficient number of rules, the student is enabled to group certain ones together, until he has discovered the natural *laws* that control them.

In a similar way, as his studies progress, he is able to determine, from a study of the natural laws of business and of life, what the fundamental *principles* are that underlie them.

There are only a few general principles in the world of business, or the world of life, and they, when they are thoroughly understood, are found to be based upon one ultimate *ideal*.

Thus you will see that

From many *facts* we discover a rule.
From many *rules* we discover a law.
From many *laws* we discover a principle.
From many *principles* we discover an *ideal*.

Or, reading the formula backwards, we may substitute the following. There is only one ultimate ideal in every person's life, and it operates as follows:

A man's *ideal* influences his principles.
His *principles* influence the laws by which he governs his life.
Each *law* regulates his rules of action.
Each *rule of action* determines certain *facts of his existence.*
The diagram below will visualize the above proposition.

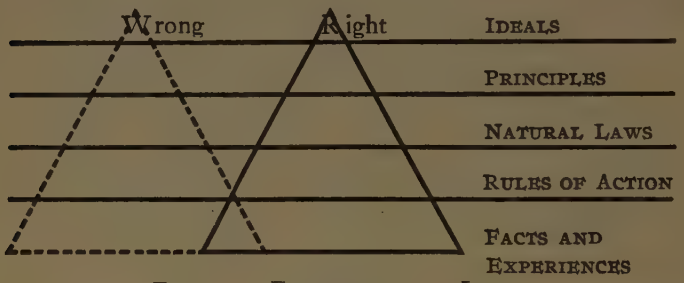

FIGURE 7. EXPERIENCES AND IDEALS.

A thorough study of the above will fasten upon the student's mind in a vivid way the direct and positive relation between a right ideal and business efficiency. He will see at once that if his ideal is right, his principles will be right; that if his principles are right, the laws by which he governs his life will be right; that if he governs his life by right laws, the rules of conduct that he lays down for himself will be of the sort that will bring him into contact with those facts of life that are of the most value to him and lead him to avoid the suffering and hardship of contact with experiences that are injurious and harmful.

It also illustrates the point that the facts on which one bases his conclusions and also the experiences he has, are mainly right or mainly wrong in proportion to the distance his ideal is removed from the right ideal. And it suggests that no man is ever wholly wrong or wholly bad.

A study of this diagram and the principle it illustrates will show the student how it is that character can be improved and

business efficiency increased by study. For he will see at once that a correct ideal will bring him into contact with correct principles; that a knowledge of correct principles will reveal to him the true laws that govern efficiency; that these natural laws will lead him to establish in his life proper and valuable rules of conduct; and that these rules of conduct will lead him unerringly to seek for experiences with the facts of life that are valuable, and to avoid experiences with the facts of life that are injurious.

As an illustration of the above, let us consider the following:

A child touches a red-hot stove. He finds that a hot stove burns. That is a fact of life.

He touches a hot coal. He finds that a hot coal burns. That is another fact of life.

He touches hot water. He finds that hot water burns. That is another fact of life.

He groups these three facts together and discovers this rule: Heat burns. And he evolves therefrom a rule of action: "I will not touch anything that is hot with my fingers."

By a similar series of experiences, he evolves another rule of action, for the same reason: "I will not touch anything that is sharp with my fingers."

Similarly, he evolves a third rule of action: "I will not touch anything that is bitter with my tongue."

Grouping these three rules of action together in his mind, he evolves this general law from the three rules: "Do nothing that will hurt or injure you physically."

By a similar process he evolves another law: "Do nothing that will hurt or injure you morally."

By a similar process he evolves a third law: "Do nothing that will hurt or injure you mentally."

With these three laws in mind, he is now ready to evolve a principle. That principle is: "A man should not do, or allow any one else to do, anything that will injure him." It is the principle of *self-preservation,* said by Blackstone to be the first principle upon which human law is based.

Now, having this principle established, let us suppose that the

child, who is now grown to be a boy or young man, makes the same observations with regard to another that he has made with regard to himself, and thereby evolves a similar principle: "Do to others as you would like to have them do to you." This is the principle of *justice*.

Suppose then, by an entirely similar process, he discovers that in serving others he can best serve himself. He has discovered the principle of *service*.

He is now ready to take these three principles, and such other principles as he may have discovered or established in his mind, and combine them into one ideal. He discovers that in self-preservation the ideal was and is love of himself. He discovers that in granting justice to others the ideal must be love of others. He discovers that in service and its effect upon the efficiency of both himself and others, through co-operation, he has attained an ideal of love of improvement and advancement. In short, he has discovered that the one ideal whereby his life must be governed, in all its principles, laws, rules, and actions, must be the ideal of *love*.

Student's Exercise for Lesson 19

Write not over two hundred words answering the following questions: What is the most important factor in a sale? Can one improve his personality? What are the two objects of character study and development? Upon what do we base our rules of action? From what do we discover natural laws? How do we discover principles? What determines our ideals? Name the great ideal of life, and three great principles.

LESSON 20

PERSONAL QUALITIES

The problem of the salesman is to study his various points of personality in accordance with the outline given in these lessons (or in any other good outline), and then find out how each and every point can be improved.

Please examine this lesson then with special reference to yourself. Take up each topic discussed and ask yourself what your own condition is in respect to the topic referred to and how you can improve that condition by the means named. Lord Bacon in his essay on "Study" suggests that frailties of the mind, like diseases of the body, should have appropriate exercises.

Let us take the four well recognized divisions of one's personal make-up—the physical, intellectual, inspirational, and spiritual.

These are the well-known and commonly recognized divisions of personality; and as character as a whole can be strengthened only by the strengthening of its parts, we shall take up one by one three divisions of the physical, two of the intellectual, ten of the inspirational, and three of the moral, a total of eighteen points, and show how one can improve himself in each. There are other important qualities than the eighteen we shall mention. The list is in fact nearly endless; but the results the student should obtain from the study of these eighteen cardinal points will fully justify the time required and no doubt lead to much further development.

Let us first discuss the physical under the subheads:

1. Health
2. Personal appearance
3. Forceful speech

Health

The object to be attained by the salesman in keeping himself in perfect health is not simply to prolong his life or to keep himself out of the hospital. The average man will state that he is in good health when he means merely that he is not ill, having no malignant disease. This is the most debasing view one can take of the divine possibilities of the human body. The most important characteristic of perfect health is vigor, and vigor both of mind and body is the fundamental requirement of good work in salesmanship.

A poor bookkeeper may stumble along from day to day, slowly, keeping his books accurately and drawing his pay, without any marked physical vigor behind him. The same is true of almost any one engaged in routine employment. It is absolutely untrue of the salesman. If he is held down by a lack of physical vigor, he will probably be unable to sell anything to anybody.

Vigor is far more important to him than freedom from disease or illness. Many men who have been invalids have achieved great success through vigor of mind, but no man of vigorless mind has achieved triumphant success in salesmanship or in anything else except sleeping.

The practical method of securing freedom from disease is so apparent that it is only mentioned here because the outline would be otherwise incomplete.

1. Observe ordinary sanitary precautions with regard to cleanliness, air supply, and water supply.

2. Take exercise and keep your body in a state of strength in which it is able to resist the attacks of disease.

3. Make a proper study of the common diseases or illnesses to which people in your community are subject and study special means of avoiding them, especially those to which you may be inclined by heredity.

A long discussion of the above is not in order here because it is a medical topic, but every one should understand these things, by making a special study through a reliable, simple text-book on the prevention of diseases.

The student should study each one of the common diseases and learn how to avoid them, especially remembering that the way to wage war against every disease is to keep the body in a healthy, strong condition. The articles and books on these topics by Dr. Woods Hutchison are among the best common sense articles for the general public to read of any that have been written on the subject.

By a fortunate scientific circumstance, the attainment of vigor is greatly facilitated by the adoption of means to avoid disease or illness. Let us consider some of these means, remembering that

the promotion of vigor of body is made possible mainly by the exercise of vigor of mind, and that the exercise of vigor of the mind becomes easy as the vigor of the body becomes greater.

The rule for the attainment of health is much the same as the rule for the attainment of wealth—the hard thing is the start; if a person has secured a good start, the remainder is fairly easy.

It is not necessary to say here that one of the first rules for the attainment of vigor and health is that any injurious habits must be abandoned. If one is injuring himself by smoking, or by drinking, or by keeping late hours, or by the use of too much medicine, or by overeating, or by any other physical excess, the first step in the attainment of health is the correction of this habit.

Vigor and health depend not so much upon avoidance of bad habits as upon the formation of good ones. Let a man see to it that he has an ample amount of sleep every night, in fresh air always, and let him see to it that he eats enough good food, but studiously avoids overeating, and compels himself to take sufficient exercise for physical well-being. Great good can be accomplished by five minutes' practice in the morning and evening at flexing the muscles, before a mirror whenever possible, and by careful deep breathing at all times.

The trouble with the health of most people is that the digestive organs are too full and the lungs too empty. Reverse these conditions.

The attainment of vigor is much more a matter of the mind than the avoidance of disease, because vigor is largely a state of mind. In the question of health a man is frequently what he thinks he is and what he wants to be.

There are many people who want to be ill.

They wish to engage in conversations that will permit them to comment upon their own ill health.

A neurasthenic of this kind will expect sympathy and be actually insulted if some friend remarks that he is looking well. There is probably not a reader of this sentence who has not seen people of this sort. Of course, any germ disease will attack

a person no matter what his state of mind and body, but a strong mind will enable him to throw off many illnesses.

The student should pursue this subject further on his own account in some book on physical culture. The Physical Culture Magazine offers many helpful suggestions, as it is edited by a man of common sense.

The attainment of strength is usually secured simply by the exercise of the general rules of health, on account of the fact that nature provides certain forms of exercise and refreshment that help one automatically. You cannot take a walk, for instance, without bringing into play most of the muscles of the body that need exercise; and walking is said to be the most thorough and complete exercise there is.

Mental Attention in Physical Exercise

Mental attention is what makes any thought or action effective. Three minutes of concentration upon any physical exercise is worth more than an hour of dull routine.

Doctors cannot do much for the ordinary man except relieve his pain, and, possibly, cure him when he is ill.

The important thing—the ninety-nine per cent item—is to *keep well,* and to keep well requires common sense and mental effort. Even a log will rot if it is left to lie in a swamp.

The building of muscles beyond a certain point is not important, but up to that point it means life and joy, appetite and love.

Three minutes a day has enabled many thousands of the wise to escape the hospital, the blue envelope, and the undertaker. The man or woman who will devote this much time a day for two or three years to sincere, concentrated effort, will learn something about the human body that is worth knowing.

That is, that the mind actively centered on the muscles for three minutes, can accomplish more than the muscles without the mind in an hour.

In exercising, pull as though pulling a weight. Use the bare hands, but set the muscles against each other. Pull up, down, and

from each side in the same way. Watch the action of the muscles in a mirror. Think of them. Feel them. Make them tense. Pull with all your strength. Invent new positions. Learn where your muscles are, where they are fastened and what each does.

Try it, three minutes a day, just before retiring. Then sleep in fresh air, work in it. Drink plenty of water and eat all you need, but no more.

Your body is important. You have only one and it is worth treating well.

It is possible to improve the vigor and health of every part of the body by careful attention. Study the different parts of the body one by one and see what special exercises can help them.

It is unnecessary to be a physician or a physiologist in order to get the benefit of a common sense course of physical training. You do not have to know the name of a muscle in order to give it the proper exercise. At the same time it is a little more interesting and pleasant to exercise when you do know the names and locations of the various muscles of the body.

Importance of the Body to the Mind

The importance of the body to the mind has often been the theme of scientists and philosophers.

William Hawley Smith says* in his interesting way, on this subject:

"The ability to function mentally is largely determined by bodily conditions, in particular those that the thinker has been born with. I believe that in you, whoever you are, in your ultimate self, there are limitless powers and abilities, latent but none the less real, ready and waiting to express themselves, if only the bodily organs are sufficiently perfect to permit of their functioning through them.

"Conditioned in the human body, the mind is limited in its expression by the body in which it lives. It can only function in such mental planes as the physical organs through which it must

* All the Children of all the People.—Macmillan & Co.

act render possible. Drive a good stake there and you can safely tie to it, I am very sure.

"If you have no eyes, you cannot see. But the ability to see, if you had eyes—that is an inherent power that you possess, and that you cannot be robbed of. If you cannot see, the fault lies in your body. At least, that is the way it seems to me.

"Take the case of a girl I know who was born blind. For the first few years of her life she was wholly unable to see, not because she was not possessed of the innate ability to see, but because the physical organ of sight was imperfect in her case. A skillful physician remedied this defect and just as soon as her eye was made single, her whole body was made full of light. Does it not seem clear, in this case at least, that she had the ability to see, from the first, and that the only reason why she could not exercise that ability was because an imperfection in her body interposed a barrier which this ability could not pass?

"As I sit here writing I have a pair of glasses astride my nose. I have to have them, or I cannot see the marks I make on the paper under my hand. But now, why is it that I cannot see without the glasses, and can see with them? Have I myself, in my inmost essential being—have I lost the ability to see when these glasses are in their case? Not at all. I have as much ability to see now as I ever had, probably more. But these eyes of mine have been so much used that they are getting worn out and have to be repaired, artificially re-enforced, or I cannot see. The trouble is in my eyes, not in me at all. And so it is wrong to say I can no longer see well. That is not the way to put it. I should say that my eyes have so changed that I can no longer use them, that I cannot function through them, that they fail to convey to me true sensations of what they once correctly reported. It is a physical organ, and not a mental lack, that is at fault.

"And sometimes eyes are, from the first, much worse than mine are now. Sometimes they are altogether wanting. But the ability to use eyes, when they and their physical belongings are all present and in good working order, is never wanting in a human being.

"You take down the receiver of the telephone some morning and put it to your ear, and you get no response. What is wrong? Has electricity ceased to be, and has magnetism lost the power of attraction? Not at all. These forces are as potent as they ever have been, or as they ever will be; but there is something wrong with the instrument through which they are set to work, in this given case. There is a bad connection—a break, a crossed wire somewhere. The current cannot function through the medium as at present adjusted. That is all. Put the instrument right, and your telephone will work as perfectly as ever again."

That is the whole point for the salesman. Put the instrument right—your body. You cannot remedy every defect, because you are human; but you can work wonders by proceeding along the lines that have been laid down in this chapter and that will be discussed in greater detail throughout this course.

"The round of flesh that walls us in," as Browning puts it, can be made more and more to answer the demands of mental growth and power, if we will but give to it the deep, scientific attention that it requires.

Exercise for Lesson 20

Write an essay of not over two hundred words answering the following questions in complete sentences:

What three important sanitary precautions should everyone observe? Do people usually drink enough water? Do they usually overeat? How much sleep should one have? What do you consider the chief causes of disease? Why is mental attention important in exercising? How does the body often limit the mind?

10/16

LESSON 21

PERSONAL APPEARANCE

Another division of the physical side of the salesman's personality is his Personal Appearance. Personal appearance depends upon three things: Cleanliness, clothing, and bearing. There are some buyers who do not insist upon a salesman's being clean, but the percentage of those who are irretrievably set against a dirty or an untidy salesman, is large enough to make this an important consideration. Finger-nails, hair, neck, and above all, teeth, should be as clean as they can be made.

The peculiarity of this terrible disease of dirtiness is that the afflicted person has no desire to reform.

Let him have slouchy clothes and you can frequently talk him into dressing more neatly. Let him have humped-over shoulders and a woe-begone expression, and you can often convince him of the value of a smile and an erect bearing. But let him be dirty, and it is not wise to advise him on this subject unless you are a bigger man than he is.

Dirtiness is a peculiar thing, and more peculiar than we ordinarily think, because of the fact that customers will not explain their aversion to dirty salesmen and will simply refuse to buy of them without stating the trouble, such is the indignation with which most dirty people accept any suggestion or counsel on this topic.

The second matter is clothing. Unless you are a salesman of extreme styles, always avoid extreme clothing styles. There are many salesmen whose natural bearing is such that they can wear the most novel cut of clothing attractively; but ordinarily it is wise to avoid both extremes in clothing; wear neither jewelry nor rags. Don't be better dressed or worse dressed than the majority of your trade. Many salesmen adopt the principle frequently employed by public speakers, of having no jewelry or other orna-

ment upon the person to attract the attention of the observer. The habit of toying with the spectacles or watch fob has spoiled many a sale. You would not expect a man running a footrace to be taking a pair of nose-pincers on and off his nose and whirling them around on his finger while he is running. If a salesman would consider that it is just as important to make his sale as to win a race, and requires the same concentration, many of these habits of a nervous and distracting sort would be replaced by convincing and forceful habits of speech.

Then, being clean and well clad, see that your attitude is erect and your expression pleasant. Smile, don't grin. Be pleasant, not effusive. Be vigorous, not offensive. Remember that the reflex action of the smile is great. Not only does it create a pleasant impression on the mind of your customer, but it is quite likely to bring pleasant thoughts to the mind of the wearer of the smile.

But the desire for a neat personal appearance should never lead the salesman to disdain or avoid necessary labor.

When John Wanamaker, one of America's most successful merchants, began business, it was no unusual thing for him to be seen in the street, pushing a truck containing his goods.

Jay Gould, whose reputation in later years was considerably more unsavory than in the beginning, began as a peddler, walking the dusty roads with a pack on his back; and Thomas A. Edison, the world's greatest inventor, has always been as little ashamed of a pair of dirty hands as a white man can reasonably be.

These men recognized the value of cleanliness and neat personal appearance, but rightly stopped short of over-daintiness.

The young man who keeps himself clean and well-groomed does wisely; but when anxiety over his personal appearance prompts him to leave useful work undone, his carefulness becomes dandyism. There is scarcely any business in which one is not required occasionally to get a speck of dust on his cuffs or wilt the edge of his collar. When such occasions arise, blessed is the man who is not ashamed of dirt.

Correct and Forceful Speech—A Physical and Intellectual Quality

Every salesman should cultivate his knowledge of the English language. It is one of the most valuable of all studies to him. The study of this language must teach him two things, first, the ability to talk *correctly;* second, the ability to talk *effectively.* It is not necessary to produce any argument in favor of the above. The salesman who is not making it a point to read the best books written, is failing to educate himself in a way that is most vital to his success. Other common school studies should be mastered, at least to a reasonable degree of proficiency, for the sake of general development of the mind; but the power of speech is all important.

The salesman should seek to cultivate his mind-power regularly by study as he begins his life work, remembering that only he advances who studies constantly. The value of no study is lost to the salesman, especially the study of great books.

The salesman should train himself, or seek special training elsewhere, in the art of talking effectively.

This is one of the most important attributes of the salesman. It involves both a study of arguments and a training of the voice. The former is what these courses are designed to give to the student. The latter is something that he must learn for himself, unless better instruction is available.

When a man tells you that the cultivation of the powers of the voice is not distinctly necessary on the part of the salesman, because salesmen succeed who do not do this, he forgets that the salesmen to whom he refers are men who win in spite of their faults and not on account of them. Fifteen minutes spent every evening for six months in the cultivation of a good, smooth, even, and forceful tone of voice is a splendid investment; and certainly if there is any business on earth where the human voice is valuable, it is the business of salesmanship. Your voice is likely to make you friends or enemies without your knowing it. No man can afford to use anything but a pleasant, smooth, businesslike

voice, and if this is true, then it must also be true that no man can afford to let his voice go uncultivated if he can improve it ever so slightly by practice.

You do not need the services of a vocal teacher or an elocutionist. You need your own ears and a silent room. You need to regulate the tone quality of your voice. For instance, speak to yourself now, as you read this, in a high, rasping tone of voice. See how that sounds. Finally, after you have experimented with objectionable tones of voice, which you will not use in your work, try to produce a smooth, even tone, such as one should always employ; and remember that this is part of the business of the salesman.

Your voice must not sound like the voice of one who has gone to sleep, neither must it sound like the voice of one who is nervous and excited. Is it not possible that your voice has a trace of these deficiencies in it?

It is possible that you have a deficiency of speech, such as lisping or stuttering. It has been scientifically demonstrated that these faults can be cured through proper practice.

Here, once more, you must be warned against the man who tries to make you believe that these are qualities with which a man is born and that there is no possibility of escape from the objectionable ones. Think again about what was suggested a few lessons previous, that the man who has attractive qualities has them because of effort put forth by himself, as well as by his parents. It is said of the great French orator, Mirabeau, that his face had been marked by smallpox, and was repulsive beyond description, but nature had been so changed by the inner fire that the most beautiful women of France were enraptured by the vigor of his expression, the illumination of his eyes, and the wonderful force of his manner, qualities cultivated by him though he was handicapped by a terrible disfigurement.

General Education

The general education of the salesman should be the very best he can secure, no matter what the limit of his schooling has

been. What he could not get in school, he must obtain through study outside of school in later years, remembering that *no real education is valueless,* especially to a man whose daily work is to meet and convince men and women from all walks of life.

It should not be forgotten that general education along all liberal and practical lines is as valuable to the salesman as to any other person. It broadens the mind, exercises the imagination, and cultivates an interesting and attractive personality. A vain display of general educational attainments is to be avoided, but the incidental power these bring is of great value.

Student's Exercise for Lesson 21

(Fifty to seventy-five words)

You are selling a book entitled "Common Mistakes of Speech Corrected." Your customer is Mr. Rice, principal of a school. Refer, in your talk, to the value of correct language.

10/11

LESSON 22

INSPIRATIONAL QUALITIES

The preceding lesson has referred more to the physical and intellectual machinery of the mind, and not to the spirit or soul behind it that moves it to endeavor and inspires it to succeed. It is true that certain things must be studied just as it is true that certain things must be done to cultivate the body, but beyond both of these things there lies the cultivation of that inclination toward motion, activity, and enthusiasm that we refer to as "spirit," and the seat of the moral qualities that we refer to as the soul.

Fundamentally, the salesman's success, like that of every other man, depends upon his "spirit" and his soul.

Those who do not think deeply say, "I know it is true that

you can cultivate the body and the machinery of the mind, but the spirit and soul are natural gifts."

These persons are in error. It is just as possible for a man to cultivate spirit and character as to increase his powers along physical and intellectual lines. To test the truth of this statement, consider the most important of the inspirational qualities just referred to, and how they can be cultivated.

Ambition

Hard work alone does not make men successful. It is the purpose that goes with hard work, the ambition behind it, that brings home the reward.

Labor is vital wherever real attainment is concerned, and the man who will not work should not eat, as has been fully set forth by Moses and by John Smith of Virginia. But "getting up early," as S. E. Kiser says, "never made any man great." It is the purpose that goes with getting up early that is important.

Tomorrow is the day for which wise men prepare, and in the preparation they discover a wonderful today; for happiness and peace depend upon imagination, and imagination looks forward.

Tomorrow is what brings to us the reward or punishment for today. Our plans and efforts of today must inevitably be controlled by the sort of tomorrow we desire; for every man works for what he wants, and the sincerity of his desire is tested in the refining pot of effort.

Joy is a state of conscious growth that looks toward what is to come, and no permanent happiness can come to the man who lives only in yesterday and today.

Imagination and ambition are soul-mates because they are both looking forward to tomorrow.

Ambition is the desire to win. This is stronger in some people than in others, but can be cultivated by all. There is no basis for the popular idea that ambition is unattainable unless born in a man.

The average person becomes ambitious through the fact that in his childhood wise parents and teachers read to him stories that point him to success and achievement. Throughout life, he is constantly educated by his school book, by the daily newspaper, by the preacher, by everyone with whom he comes in contact, to the belief that he can attain greater things. The very fact that certain men around him have attained success is itself a part of this education.

Writers, newspaper men, preachers, parents, teachers, all find that their labors in instilling ambition meet with success for the reason that as soon as they succeed in getting one hundred people to try and try hard, they have from ninety-five to one hundred who will succeed; these will buy more books, buy more newspapers, pay more preachers, pay more teachers; and the more they pay these great inspirers, the more they will be inspired; and so the whole cycle of improvement goes on, because Truth is on the side of the man who says, "If I try, I can win."

It follows very closely and very logically that if a man can be inspired by the teachings of others, he can in a similar way inspire himself. Let the man who feels that his desire to win and struggle and fight is not strong enough, go to the library in his town and look up books of inspiration, biographies of successful men, whether in his own line of business or not. The principle is exactly the same as explained in the preceding paragraph. Just as a teacher can inspire him by pointing out these truths, so can he inspire himself by reading about them. Did you ever look at it in this light before? If you will secure Mr. Crewdson's book, "Tales of the Road," or Mr. Moody's book, "Men Who Sell Things," you will find them full of stories of success. Suppose added to this you study the biographies of famous salesmen like Andrew Carnegie. Your ambition will be aroused.

As an illustration of how you can awaken your own ambition by studying the lives of others, examine the following list and see if it does not quicken your desire to accomplish things.

Why He Succeeded

He saw the necessity of refining oil at a time when others were simply buying oil wells.—John D. Rockefeller.

He wrote poems for twenty years without financial reward.—James Whitcomb Riley.

He worked incessantly on his orations, while his neighbors said he wouldn't amount to much.—William Jennings Bryan.

He determined, early, upon the honest course in politics and clung persistently to the principles of the square deal.—Theodore Roosevelt.

He worked at $5 a week at his chosen profession when he might have been making $25 at something else.—George Ade.

He did $10 worth of work a week for $1.40.—Andrew Carnegie.

He lived a poor man, surrounded by graft, and taught the laboring man to trust him.—John Mitchell.

He painted his advertisement on tea boxes that had to be thrown overboard in a wreck.—Sir Thomas Lipton.

He saved $5,000 out of wages that most boys spend.—Marshall Field.

He delivered goods in a handcart to save the expense of hiring a parcel wagon.—John Wanamaker.

Do you not see, after reading this list, how it is that the study of biography will increase your own desire to succeed?

If, then, it is possible for you to cultivate ambition by reading of the experiences of others, it is also possible for you to take the next step and cultivate it by planning for *your own* future. Suppose you spend a period of time every day in thought, contemplating the possibilities of your own success. Do you not believe that you can cultivate ambition? Of course, if you figure too high, you may under-shoot the mark, fail, and be disappointed. You must guard against this disappointment by trying again.

Do not forget that there is a wrong kind of ambition—the kind that brutalizes.

Ambition, when it overleaps itself, becomes a terrible disease, a scourge, and a pitiful drawback to character.

Moscow, burned to the ground by its own inhabitants to prevent Napoleon from capturing it, was an eloquent witness to the superiority of patriotism over the desire for power; Richelieu will ever remain detested because of a vindictive ambition, who might otherwise be admired for surpassing ability; and many a blotted page of history contains the name of Benedict Arnold, who bartered undying glory for a tinseled coat.

No virtue dovetails into a vice more readily than the proper desire for attainment can be cheapened into self-seeking; for ambition unrestrained by character is a foe to every noble instinct.

In 1830 Daniel Webster reached a pinnacle of power and fame which few Americans have ever occupied. South Carolina, in her "nullification movement," threatened to disrupt the spirit of national unity which had become, since the War of 1812, the most inspiring and glowing sentiment in American hearts. In his wonderful reply to Haynes, in which he used those now familiar words, "Liberty and Union, now and forever, one and inseparable!" Daniel Webster "stood before the world," as Carl Schurz put it, "as the first of living Americans."

Twenty years later, inflamed with the desire to become President of the United States, in his disgraceful "7th of March speech," eager for Southern votes, he compromised, apologized, retracted, and conceded until he fell like Lucifer.

Of the Southern votes he expected, he received not one; the North reproached him with indignation, and in the agony of despair he openly complained of his defeat and abused his successful rival.

What happened to Webster has happened often. It happens in one form or another whenever men forsake principles for power; and the unfortunate patriarch who sold his birthright for a mess of pottage is no whit different from the self-seeker who deserts the inside for the outside, and sacrifices character on the altar of ambition.

Ambition, like everything else in the world that is worth

having, can be secured by effort. Sufficient time and labor spent in securing the object of one's desire will make that desire a thousand times stronger than at the first.

Show me a man who has reached the top of this world's greatness, and I will show you a still more wonderful thing. I will show you a man at the bottom, struggling. I will show you a solitary climber stumbling toward a mountain. I will show you a man of sorrows and acquainted with grief. I will show you an eye that flashes with determination, an ear that hears melodies unknown to the common. I will show you a resolution magnificent and a will incomparable. I will show you a man as great in his heart at 20 as in his reputation at 40,—four-square, solid, magnificent!

Patience

This is the quality that must come first to the aid of ambition if actual results are to be obtained, for it makes ambition effective and attainable.

There is no better way to cultivate patience than to fix the eyes upon the future. At the time it is being performed, work seldom seems to pay for itself in the doing. He is indeed a lucky person who has so found his work that he enjoys every minute of it more than he would enjoy relaxation or amusement. It is poetic and delightful to think of work as being more pleasant than amusement is, but we know as a matter of cold, solid fact that to the majority of people it is not.

It is patience that makes a man stick to his work at times when others have deserted, or at times when discouragements are heavy upon him, but the man who fixes his eyes on a point ten, fifteen, or thirty years ahead can thereby cultivate a brand of patience that will fit him for the struggle—not the sort of patience that will free his mind from any worry or ambition or desire connected with the future, but the kind that persuades him to hold on because he can see the goal ahead.

To cultivate patience, improve your health, especially your nerves. Patience is largely a physical quality.

Determination

The determination to succeed in spite of the lack of advantages is at the root and base of every true success, and it is because of this fact that opportunity knocks at the door of every man.

There is much that may be said, with truth, of the power and influence of heredity, through which men and women are cursed for generations by the sins of their forefathers or blest by their virtues, but heredity itself cannot furnish cords strong enough to bind forever the hands of the man or woman who is determined to overcome it.

The stuttering Demosthenes became the world's greatest orator.

Martin Luther, a miner's son, in the days when royal power was most potent and the common people were most down-trodden, became the most influential man in Europe.

Andrew Carnegie, taken from school at the age of 8 years to earn his daily bread, has lived to give away $300,000,000, that others may have the educational advantages that were denied him.

James Gordon Bennett, founder and editor of the New York Herald, and one of the few literary men of the United States who have ever been able to pay their debts, failed five times before success came.

But these men had determination—that's the thing. It is often worth more than all the other advantages of the world combined.

Benjamin Franklin eating a bun in the streets of Philadelphia, Abraham Lincoln lying on his stomach reading a book, and John Wanamaker pushing a handcart are unconventional figures; and James A. Garfield, barefooted, driving a mule, no doubt presented an absurd appearance.

Following the rule of majority, these men would have stayed where they were put. But they were not born to simply "get along" and drift.

Drifting is pleasant, but it is always down stream.

The men and women who count are those who struggle upstream, for at the head of the stream is the mountain peak.

To be sleek and well-fed—for a while—make no original effort, fall in with the rest, approve everything, second the motion, never "throw away your vote," and be careful not to protest. But if you would be near the hinges of the world, if you want to feel your own hand upon the lever that lifts, moves, changes, and reforms, you must be one of the world's workers.

Perseverance 10/20

It is as impossible to become a scholar in the twinkling of an eye as for Caliban to become a Chesterfield after half an hour of Delsarte.

You must get a little every day.

It is said that Benjamin Franklin, when a boy, became very much wearied at his father's long grace before each meal, and one day, in his quaint, droll manner, rolled into the dining room a whole barrel of pork, beseeching his father to invoke the Divine blessing upon it all at once, and thus have done with the business. But his father rebuked him sharply, reminding him (and there was much philosophy in the old man's remarks) that the blessing of Heaven was wanted, not on the pork in the barrel, but on such portions of it as were consumed day by day.

Education is not to be secured in a single moment, but only in the course of a long and studious life.

A fortune may be made in a day by a masterful stroke of financiering or a lucky bet on the stock market. A skillful operation may restore a man to health in half an hour. We are told by certain of the orthodox that the vilest sinner that ever stood before the throne of grace may become a saint in the regeneration of a moment; but there is one thing on earth that cannot be acquired by any short cut. This thing is intellectual power.

Young men and women are intellectually ruined by the thousands because they imagine that education is a thing to be limited by a school house and concluded upon the receipt of a diploma, while all around them are successful people lacking early advan-

tages who, because they knew no diploma, because they knew no place to stop, did not stop, but continued to pursue their studies long after their companions had ceased to grow.

Stations, diplomas, and graduating days are bad things for men and women who want to get to the end of the line.

When an architect plans a building he puts everything in it at the start that he expects to require.

It is wonderful at first—new, modern, convenient, beautiful.

After that it becomes weather-beaten, worn, rickety, and rotten by degrees until it falls into the hands of the wrecking company.

The young person who attempts to equip his mind on the same plan—once for all—is likely to plan an attractive structure, come into possession on opening day, and then let it rot.

The mind is the most marvelous mechanism this side of heaven, and constant mental growth is the only infallible rule of intellectual progress. The most wonderful brain that was ever formed will become weak and helpless through disuse. The most ordinary capacity will increase a thousandfold through action and exercise.

The man of real perseverance places no limits of grades, diplomas, or past attainment upon his mental capital. He grows because of a burning desire and a ceaseless appetite.

Even apparent dullards may attain to great intellectual power by constant effort.

History is full of instances.

Sir Isaac Newton, when at school, stood at the bottom of his class.

Sir Walter Scott was considered a dunce, as a boy, so far as his schoolroom work was concerned—so much so that Prof. Dalzell of Edinburgh University said of him, "Dunce he is, and dunce he will remain." Yet who of those who have read "Marmion," "Ivanhoe," and "The Lady of the Lake" will now agree with the professor?

Wellington and Napoleon, whose armies met as foes in the most conspicuous battle of the 19th century, and wrote their names

in blood all over the map of Europe, were commonplace at school; and Ulysses S. Grant, the greatest general of the Civil War, twice President of the United States, was in his boyhood dubbed "Useless" Grant by his own mother, he was so unhandy! So unhandy that when as a boy he was appointed to a cadetship in West Point, a neighbor who met his father on the road said: "I hear they've appointed your boy, 'Lyss, ter be eddicated at th' nation's expense." "They have," replied Mr. Grant proudly. "Well, that's a great note," replied the neighbor. "Why did they select him when there were bright boys in th' neighborhood?"

It is said that, as a boy, he once raised his own bid at an auction.

Sir Humphrey Davy, Lord Wilberforce, Stonewall Jackson—hundreds of the world's greatest men—have been in this class—dunces in their boyhood, or, at least, thought by their instructors to be so.

Now, don't misunderstand. One should not place a premium on stupidity. But a man needn't sneeze all his life just because he took a pinch of snuff in the cradle, nor remain in mediocrity forever because once, in the dear, dim days beyond recall, he stood in the corner with a dunce-cap on his head.

Gen. Grant's relatives tried a long time to persuade the public that the great warrior was not stupid as a boy, and Paganini, the great violinist, encouraged the belief that he had a witchery from the devil, when he knew that what made him a genius was hard work. The first interview granted by the recently great usually evolves the pleasant fiction that there was some sudden inspiration or flash of genius about the matter, though the candidate for a statue knows he is lying at the time. It came by slow degrees.

It is only after first honors wear off that the successful man becomes great enough to admit that the whole thing was the result of hard work plus courage.

Struggling and failing is a nobler way to live than loafing at Newport; and the friends who try to believe that Gen. Grant was a bright boy rob him of his greatest glory as the world's most wonderful example of the power of perseverance.

Paganini may have become thin by natural inclination, but the monks in the mountains said that it was from excessive exercise at his violin practice.

The mad effort to deceive the public as to the real cause of their success is the chief blot upon the character of many of the world's greatest men, and is the source of much discouragement to the struggling. The hickory shirt, the calloused hand, the pine knot torch for students, lack the charm they should have, because we want to believe that no good can come from Nazareth or Crackers' Bend, and the poor boy who has become famous believes in giving us what we want and goes back on the thing that made him.

The man who first said, "Inspiration is perspiration," was thinking of perseverance.

Any task's conclusion comes with amazing rapidity when the results of long labor begin to accumulate.

The prudent money-saver struggles through a series of years with small economies, and one day, suddenly, perhaps in the twinkling of an eye, he realizes that the result has been comfortably attained.

The student often wrestles for half a lifetime, not thoroughly grasping the essentials of true learning, and then in some one sentence that he reads, a great central truth flashes across his mind, and he begins to gather the scattered threads together.

The man who first said, "All things come to him who waits," might have added, "They require years of preparation, but when they come they appear suddenly."

This sudden flash of accomplishment is what we call inspiration. But it is not. It is merely the rapid moving of results when all the mines have been laid, the workers in readiness, and the fuse touched with a small, silent streak of fire.

It is the rule of growth that details must first be met and mastered by the thousands, before general rules can be understood; and that rules must be learned by the score before general laws are realized. These laws evolve into principles and principles at length create the life's ideal.

When a man at last reaches the great ideal of right living, he suddenly reaches an intellectual pinnacle from which he can survey everything about him. One of the greatest rewards of mental culture comes when the thinker begins to realize that he is able to base all his rules of action on the right ideal and correct fundamental principles; and the grasping of these comes with suddenness, after long perseverance.

Student's Exercise for Lesson 22

Write not over one hundred words on the following:

How will you cultivate ambition? Name one person whose life you will study for this purpose. What has aroused your ambition most, thus far in your life? Name a great man whose ambition led him astray. What is one of the best means of improving patience? Name a great man who overcame a big obstacle through determination. Name one evil of a diploma. What would you say is the chief incentive to perseverance?

10/21

LESSON 23

TACT

Tact is the *ready power of appreciating and doing* what is required by circumstances.

In common language, when a man has sense enough not to "rub the fur the wrong way," we say he has tact.

It is tact that enables the salesman to avoid saying the thing that will offend the customer. It is tact that enables the salesman to say exactly the right thing.

It is not always tactful to be conciliatory. Sometimes tact requires that a man shall become righteously indignant and show resentment of injury or insult.

That depends entirely upon the result to be accomplished. In short, tact is facility in doing the precise thing that will secure the best results.

Tact will enable the salesman to smooth over the feelings of an angry customer or to arouse to activity the passive or indecisive customer.

The cultivation of tact involves the cultivation of almost every other desirable personal quality. Its exercise requires deeper study than any other character quality, for the average person.

The possession of this quality is a gold mine to any salesman. Its absence is an almost irreparable loss.

Probably there are no single qualities that contribute more to the cultivation of tact than good-will, patience, and cheerfulness. It is nearly impossible for an impatient man to be tactful.

There is only one better way to cultivate tact than to devote deep thought to an occurrence after it is over and to consider what you should have done. That is to do your thinking in advance, in detail.

Tact requires a complex multitude of qualities. "Agree with thine adversary quickly,"* was one of the statements of Jesus Christ; but the same man who gave this advice also drove the money changers out of the temple; and one act was as tactful as the other.

Tact is not subservience, neither is it masterfulness; it is nothing more nor less than the ability, as we say in common speech, "to do the right thing at the right time."

Cheerfulness

Cheerfulness and optimism are great qualities in salesmanship.

A well-known business man tells the following story:

"I knew a man a few years ago who was a clerk in an express office. If life had been too pleasant for me for a week or two, and I needed to knock elbows with a surly man just to strike a proper balance, I used to send a package *via* that particular man, in that particular office. He was the sourest, bitterest, most caustic citizen I ever met.

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* Matt. v, 25.

"Later, being out of a position, he took to soliciting insurance, and I noticed that he acquired a warmth of handgrasp and smile that I had thought impossible to such a man. He became an energetic, sympathetic, genuine sort of man.

"Afterward, by some strange freak of fate, he became a private nurse; for his nerves were steady and his patience inexhaustible. Then I saw him no more for three years.

"The other day I met him. He was like a tamed and broken-down woman. He was servile, fawning. His every word was a caress and every action gentle. He had no opinions of his own. He called me "sir" with a sort of habitual humbleness—a fawning delicacy. And, altogether, in the bottom of my heart, I pitied him."

Men's natures are influenced by the business they are in. You cannot afford to slight that consideration in choosing an occupation.

And after you have chosen your business, remember that the contented smile, the cheerful word, and the optimistic view are among the most valuable assets of the salesman.

One of the best methods of cultivating cheerfulness is to force a smile, looking in a mirror, at times when you feel blue; to draw in full, deep breaths of fresh air and stretch yourself to your full height; to hunt up cheerful people and talk to them; to take some quick, vigorous exercise.

Cheerfulness is the result of a mental attitude largely based on physical conditions.

Professor James says on "Contentment":

"With most objects of desire, physical nature restricts our choice to but one of many represented goods, and even so it is here. I am often confronted by the necessity of standing by one of my empirical selves and relinquishing the rest. Not that I would not, if I could, be both handsome and fat and well dressed, and a great athlete, and make a million a year, be a wit, a bon-vivant, and a lady-killer, as well as a philosopher; a philanthropist, statesman, warrior, and African explorer, as well as a 'tone-poet' and saint. But the thing is simply impossible. The million-

aire's work would run counter to the saint's; the bon-vivant and the philanthropist would trip each other up.

"To give up pretensions is as blessed a relief as to get them gratified; and where disappointment is incessant and the struggle unending, this is what men will always do.

"The Stoic receipt for contentment was to dispossess yourself in advance of all that was out of your own power,—then fortune's shocks might rain down unfelt."

Hard Work

As good a fable as Aesop ever wrote is the one about the family of larks in a harvest field. The mother lark, being called away from home on business, left word with her young ones that they should listen carefully to everything they heard, and report to her upon her return; for she knew that it was near harvest time, and that their pleasant home was in danger from the scythe. When she came back from her journey she found the family in a high state of alarm. They told her that the farmer had come into the field with his two sons, and, noticing the ripeness of the grain, had said to them: "We must cut this grain tomorrow. Go, therefore, and bid our good neighbors to come and help us."

The mother lark only laughed and told her children to have no fears. "But," said she, "note carefully what may be said while I am gone tomorrow."

Upon her return the next day, she found her family again in a high state of alarm. "The farmer came again," said they, "and said to his sons: 'See, the grain is still riper and our neighbors have not come. Go, therefore, and invite our relatives to come, each with his scythe, and help us tomorrow.'" So the young larks pleaded with their mother to let them flee for their lives.

But the mother only laughed again, and said: "Do not be alarmed, but listen once again to what they will say today."

That day the farmer came again and said to his sons: "I perceive that neither our neighbors nor our relatives can be counted on to help us. Tomorrow, therefore, we will bring our scythes hither and cut the grain ourselves."

When the mother lark heard this, she said: "Then, my dears, we must indeed be going; for if the farmer and his sons have determined to do the work themselves, it will no doubt be done at once, and our home will be destroyed."

Oh, that was good, sound, all-wool-and-a-yard-wide common sense, based on a perfect knowledge of human nature. That wise old lark knew, as well as you know, that the man who gets things done is the man who stands ready to do them himself.

As wise Ben Franklin put it, "If thou wouldst have a thing done, go; if not, send."

Ben. Franklin.

Responsibleness

Some time near the beginning of the world men were equal in everything except capacity and ability.

They did not long remain so. Two brothers offered up sacrifices, and the offering of one was more acceptable than the offering of the other.

Twelve sons came to one father, and one of them became his favorite.

A mighty nation was formed, and one out of many citizens was elected to become king.

And ever since those days there have been men whose offerings and services have been acceptable, boys whose industry has made them favorites, and citizens whose talents have caused them to be elected Kings, Governors, and Presidents. They have been crowned with glory and honor, and all their brethren have bowed down before them. They have worn mantles of authority and held scepters of power. They have governed the brains, the bodies, the souls, and the pocketbooks of the multitude.

It is not knowledge alone that so elevates men above their fellows, for many a learned man has been born, reared, and buried in complete and absolute insignificance. It is not hard work alone, for many a midnight toiler has slaved himself to his grave in a cellar or an attic on forty dollars a month. It is not prudence, ambition, love, or religion alone, for the possessors of

these attributes stand in multitudes upon every round of the ladder of success. What is it?

It is, more than anything else, the faculty of accepting public and private trust and putting upon one's shoulders the burden of responsibility.

When an employer has an important letter which he wishes to be mailed at six p. m., he will either put it in the box with his own hands or give it in charge of some one who would rather miss his supper than fail to do his duty. When the President of the United States appoints a Secretary of War, he selects a man who would rather be shot, hanged, drawn, and quartered than to fail to act promptly in a pinch. When the people elect a Governor they want a man who will either veto a bill or sign it. The rabble honors a man who will act—a man who is not afraid to do things and to be responsible.

Self-confidence

This quality is next to ambition in logical order, as a great inspirational quality pointing toward successful salesmanship. Reference is not made here to conceit or egotism, which leads men to undertake tasks without necessary preparation, but to that stalwart faculty of mind whereby a man knows that he will succeed because he knows that he understands his subject, that he is willing to put into his work the necessary amount of effort. Self-confidence in a young salesman who has not as yet tried his spurs, must be based on hopefulness and willingness to try. These two qualities can scarcely fail when backed by a reasonable amount of intelligence and an unusual amount of determination.

The man who expects to win has ten chances for success to one that he would have otherwise. A salesman can hardly do anything more harmful to himself than to adopt the attitude of one who might say, "I don't think I shall sell you this, but I am going ahead with this miserable selling talk because I have been paid to do it. Stop me if you want to, and I'll go."

The test of a salesman's self-reliance frequently comes when

he is required to face the question of whether he wants to work on salary or commission. Incompetent salesmen, who have no confidence in their propositions or in themselves, are constantly on the lookout for guaranteed salary, and the house is struggling to get them to work on commission. But among the better class of salesmen, the problem is exactly the reverse. The salesman prefers the commission plan and the house often endeavors to limit him to a salary.

The reason that the commission plan should be preferred by anyone, is evident after a very little careful thought. If a salesman gets a position on a salary, he cannot keep it any longer than he is able to earn it, and in case of unusual success, he cannot reap the benefit in an increase of pay. If he works under the commission system, however, he can get pay for all the work he does. The trouble with incompetent people, however, is that they imagine they can fool their employers into thinking there is some good reason why they should be retained when they are not getting business, and that their employers will retain them—a most absurd and impossible state of affairs.

The best way to cultivate self-confidence is to put yourself in a position where you will have to rely upon yourself. Self-confidence is perhaps as hard a quality to cultivate as any, because if it is not foolhardiness, it must be based upon a certain knowledge of ability and strength, and even though one has this ability and strength, he is not likely to find it out positively until after it has been tried many times. And yet, strange as it may seem, this quality is often best developed by rebuffs and failures. Many of the strongest men we have, are men who have met with discouragements and measured themselves against adversities until their grasp of a difficulty is accurate and their strength to meet it is fully adequate.

Most of us make mistakes, but there is one man who is always right. He is the man who says he can't do it.

Confidence is a wonderful thing, and there are some philosophers and psychologists who maintain that a man can do anything if he has a sufficient amount of confidence.

"If a man have faith," says one beautiful writer, "he can move mountains."

But whether this is true or simply intended figuratively, there can at least be no doubt about the correctness of the negative of the proposition. The man who says he can't do it is right. He can't.

Courage flies from the man who has lost his confidence; and when one loses faith in himself he has nothing to rely upon.

All actions are directed by the mind, and when the mind is not sustained by faith the act miscarries, whether it be the confident drawing of the bow of a violin along its strings or the writing of a letter that will make a thousand dollars or destroy a business.

Every confident effort to do something cultivates an added experience and ability to do it successfully, which in turn begets a confidence that enables one to do more, and this creates more confidence. The chain is endless, the results cumulative.

Experience is not valuable except upon one condition—it must be experience coupled with effort.

A boy who has never tried, but believes it can be done, is a hundred times more likely to succeed than a man of years of experience coupled with failure.

Vision

Thirty years ago a boy was born in one of the small towns of the West. His parents were unable to send him to school past the fifth grade, and were compelled to put him at work at the age of eleven. He attended to his work faithfully by day. He studied by night. He earned more than his salary. He came to work five minutes early and left it half an hour late. He learned all he could about departments of the business in which he was not working. He earned a little and spent less. He kept a cool head and a clear eye by eating and sleeping regularly. He knew every morning what he was going to do when evening came. When his salary was raised, he lived on the same amount as before, and put the surplus in the bank. When he was promoted

in position, he stuck by his old friends, and made new ones by working harder than ever before. He never dodged a responsibility, but shouldered every burden in sight.

Today he is at the head of an immense establishment, with thousands of men under his charge. He is earning more money than the President of the United States, and he is still improving and educating himself.

Do you ask, "Who is he?" He is the future of what you can be. He is in every farmhouse and every city residence in this great country. He is on every playground and in every workshop from ocean to ocean, if he wills it so. He is you, if you will be today what you must be to make the man you wish to be tomorrow. He is you, if the morning hour is bringing you the golden gift of self-improvement and industry. He is you, if you are willing to pay the price of success in humble, patient effort. And to the young man or woman who says he is impossible, he is but the story of another's life, the dream of what will never be.

Do not be discouraged because development is slow.

Great thoughts and noteworthy deeds are gradual developments, not sudden miracles.

New wonders are produced by borrowing from the past and building upon what has already been accomplished. The footpath begets the road, the road fathers the horse car, the horse car evolves into the railroad, the railroad engine suggests the horseless carriage, and the automobile starts Curtiss and Wright to dreaming about the aeroplane.

The alchemy of the inventor is not suddenly to produce the unknowable from the unknown, but to take a machine that already exists, add a few more cogs here, simplify there, and get royalties on the result—if he can. So in education, agriculture, and morals, one thing leads on to another, and nothing comes suddenly but cyclones, volcano eruptions, and holocausts.

Thus, also, it is with the growth of our mental powers. We build one perfection upon another. Power is cumulative. What demanded a great effort yesterday will be easy tomorrow.

Vision is more than hope. It partakes equally of the nature of faith and of imagination. It is faith in the accomplishment of what the imagination has suggested.

"Your young men shall see visions and your old men shall dream dreams," wrote St. Paul. This is the difference between vision and imagination. Vision couples faith and hope with imagination, and crystallizes all into action.

Exercise for Lesson 23

Answer the following in complete sentences:

What is tact? Does tact require humbleness? How can you cultivate cheerfulness? What is the moral in the story of the larks? Why is responsibleness a valuable quality? Why is a commission basis of payment often best for the salesman? Why does a vision of the future help you in your daily tasks?

LESSON 24 10/23.

MORAL QUALITIES

It must be very distinctly understood that when we speak of the moral side of a man's nature we are not referring even indirectly to any particular religious belief, but simply to a man's attitude toward the great moral questions of honesty, faithfulness, cheerfulness, and the like, and their direct bearing upon the success of the salesman's work.

Before discussing the means of improving various moral qualities, it may be well to speak of one influence that is of equal importance in the cultivation of all character qualities—the selection of the right sort of friends.

To have the right kind of friends results in health, money, brains, and morality.

No other outside influence affects a man's life as his friends do, for the company that a man keeps leaves its impression upon his body, his bank account, his mental development, and

his decency, by setting the standards toward which he struggles.

It is only occasionally that men strive for an unseen ideal. They ordinarily imitate and emulate those whom they see daily. The study of books will rarely weed out "I have saw" when the student has heard it at home for twenty years, while a young man reared in a home of culture may live in a mining camp for years and never lose the correctness of his speech.

In matters of morality we are all a part of what we touch.

When a man is decent among vile surroundings, it is usually because he has had contact with decent people before. Isolated morality is nearly impossible, and the hermit does not conquer influences. He simply limits himself to those he has already had.

It is amazing that we leave the selection of friends to chance. The most careful study and investigation should regulate the choosing of companions. In choosing a place to live, the character of the neighbors should be the consideration of prime importance; and intimate friends should be selected with utmost care. Nearly every family is on a footing of good comradeship with two or three other families, and few mistakes in life are more serious than to follow the line of least resistance in this important matter.

If you want high ideals and courage, you may be sure that others with the same ideals are looking for you; no social question is of greater importance than that you should find each other. To leave this important matter to chance through either carelessness or social fear is a crime against the best there is in you.

Honesty

Certainly the man who said, "Honesty is the best policy," spoke a great truth. The reason that one who is honest is likely to be successful is not simply that others come to find out in time that he is dependable, and that therefore it will pay them to trade with him.

It is true that they do find out this, and that the cultivation

of a strong moral character does bear fruit indirectly in this way; but it bears fruit in a far more direct way—its influence on the life and character of the salesman himself.

It gives him the right to feel that whatever progress he is making and whatever success he has, is founded upon solid rock. He is not pursued by the thought that he is injuring those with whom he deals. He is not harassed by the idea that he is doing anything for his customers less than the very best he knows how. What could possibly make a man stronger than such a feeling as this?

How can a salesman expect to go through life perpetually acting a part, pretending to be the friend of his customers while he knows that he is not? Does he not know that when the customer finds out the facts, he will never buy of him again? Such a salesman must hunt up new purchasers every trip. He knows that he can do business only with the weakest and least intelligent of men—men whom he can deceive.

Is it not many times better to start into the salesmanship business recognizing the truth of the principle that a fair bargain must benefit both parties? Is it not easy to see that the salesman who recognizes this principle at the very start will attain a success that he could not otherwise attain?

This does not mean that immoral men do not often succeed, nor that there are no morally upright men who fail. But the chances are nearly one hundred to one that the salesman can attain the highest success in his business only by working along lines that have the constant approval of his inner self.

Can a leopard change his spots? Can a man cultivate honesty?

There are many who believe that a man can not cultivate honesty as a merely intellectual process, many who believe that a man is either honest or dishonest by nature, and that the only method by which a dishonest man may become honest is a sudden conversion of some sort. How absurd this is.

We all read and believe that a man's fall from a position of honesty to that of dishonesty is gradual. We hear stories of

men finally landed in the penitentiary who began by slight deviations from the path of honor, whose conscience became gradually less and less tender, and who eventually sank to the bottom, overwhelmed by a desire to cheat, lie, and steal that was irresistible.

If this is true, is it illogical to believe that a man can advance upward by the same gradual steps that marked his downfall?

If a man feels himself lacking in the quality of honesty, he can correct it by careful, earnest thought when questions arise, in which he assumes himself for the time to be the other person, providing he agrees with himself that he will always act upon the decision that he would come to in the matter if he were the other person. It is impossible to conceive how a man can contemplate the hardship brought into thousands of lives by his robbery of a bank, and yet proceed with the operation. Men are dishonest because they do not try to cultivate honesty in a positive and definite way, as suggested above.

Gambling and speculation give one wrong business ideas. Unconsciously, the thrower of dice comes to regard all business transactions as matters of chance, and the roulette enthusiast becomes the business sneak.

Not only does the gambling habit give a young man false ideas as to the extent of the element of chance in business, but it makes him lazy at his business. A man who would quit his job before he would consent to stay until nine o'clock at night to help his employer, thinks nothing of sitting up at a card table until three in the morning, or, indeed, all night, in the vain attempt to secure money that he ought to work for, like an honest man, in the day time. A boy who will not work an extra hour for fifty cents will spend an entire evening trying to beat a gambling machine out of twenty or thirty cents, and come out loser in the end. He fools away his time until he is dismissed by his employer, and becomes eventually a chronic and constitutional loafer, industrious only when an opportunity presents itself to "take a chance" on something—stirred from his lethargy only by the news of a raffle or the possibility of a bet. He

becomes so thoroughly saturated with these lazy ideas that they utterly control him.

Good-will

"Never become angry" is the first rule of prudence for the salesman. Its advantages are twofold.

1. The salesman loses a customer when he loses his head, *whether he is right or wrong.*

2. The salesman limits his own ability to think and act clearly or intelligently when he becomes angry. Angry men can't think clearly; and clear thinking is the salesman's stock in trade.

Good-will must be based upon the proposition set forth at the beginning of lesson 9. The salesman must be a real friend of the customer, not a pretended friend.

Morality

As indicated in the first lesson of this book, the days of the success of the grossly immoral salesman have practically passed away.

High moral character is recognized as one of the greatest possible assets to a skilled salesman.

A distinction must be clearly made between high moral character and belief in certain religious creeds.

Whether a salesman believes in a certain religious creed or not is a matter for his own mind to decide, with which the employer has nothing to do. But when it comes to the question of high moral character, that is a vital consideration for every employer and sales-manager.

No man can grow as a salesman without high moral character, any more than he can grow in any other line without it.

Many other moral qualities must be considered by the salesman. For instance,

Courtesy
Purity of Action and Speech
Truth (a form of honesty), etc.

All of these cannot receive special consideration here. The salesman is urged to consider carefully their importance in all business affairs, however, and to strive earnestly to cultivate them.

Exercise for Lesson 24

Write complete sentences answering the following:

What is one good method of cultivating honesty? What is the chief evil of gambling and speculation from a business standpoint? Why should a salesman never become angry? Why is his moral character a matter of concern to the salesman?

LESSON 25

WHAT THE PERSONAL QUALITIES PRODUCE

Ability

We have now briefly covered eighteen of the chief qualities among the hundreds of qualities that go to make up a strong character. In most cases we have given one or more suggestions as to how to improve the particular quality mentioned. We are now ready to consider their application as a whole to the salesman.

Taken all together, perfection in these qualities means *ability*.

Ability is not a quality in and of itself, even when it is ability along a certain narrowly restricted line, as for instance ability in penmanship. Many of the great qualities in character must be exercised in the attainment of a good handwriting, as for instance ambition, patience, determination, perseverance, hard work, self-confidence, and muscular control, based upon the cultivation of eye, arm, and hand.

No matter what line you choose to become proficient in, your ability will depend upon dozens of important character qualities.

Ability, therefore, is a result, not a means. It comes only after every possible means has been used to secure it, through the cultivation of the character qualities.

As soon as ability is secured in any line, it is followed by three results that are of inestimable value:

1. *Efficiency,* which is ability applied.
2. *Love of work,* which goes hand in hand with the ability to do well.
3. *Service,* which is the object to be attained in all business activities.

On account of the importance of these three results, we will give a little attention to each one of them in the order named.

1. Efficiency

A successful business man said in the *Business Monthly Magazine:*

"Several years ago I happened to be in the basement of a factory where one of the shipping clerks was busy nailing up boxes and writing the addresses of consignees upon them.

"He was doing his work in a very unworthy, slipshod manner, much more poorly than his best, as I could plainly see.

"I at length ventured to ask him why it was that he was doing his work so carelessly.

" 'Oh!' he replied, 'I'm dead tired of doing this stunt. There's another fellow in here who wants to do it, so I'm doing a bum job to get the boss to put me on something else. That's the way they have here. So long as a fellow is good at a little thing like this, they'll keep him on it forever. If I get off of this job I'll get a chance at the office position that I've been looking for ever since I came here.'

"Now, I'd like to record here that he got taken off of his job altogether, but it isn't true in this particular case. He was put on the books upstairs, and when he got tired of that and began to do poor work he was sent out to do the collecting. The same trick. He worked it threadbare. Then he was let out for good—by the manager, who, as a boy, had done the job of lettering better than he did."

"The best way for a man to get out of a lowly position," said Rev. John Hall, "is to be conspicuously effective in it." Surely he was right. The other scheme works sometimes, but not often.

Efficiency means the quality of doing a required *quantity* of *important* work *perfectly, on time,* and in a *manner* suitable to the best ideals of living.

Notice the elements of efficiency implied in the definition.

First, the work must be *important.* To rearrange and file waste papers geographically and alphabetically, might be done in great quantity, in perfect form, in less time than others would

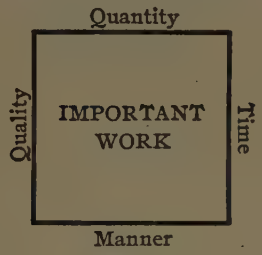

FIGURE 8. EFFICIENCY SQUARE.

take to do it, and in an honest, sober and virtuous manner, but the person doing it would not be efficient, because the work is not important.

Second, the important work you do must conform to requirements, as to

Quantity
Quality
Time
Manner

If any one of them is lacking, the worker will not be efficient. He will not be efficient

1. If the quantity is too small
2. If the quality is poor
3. If it is not done on time

4. If it is done in a manner that does not conform to proper standards of living—ungraciously, or with dishonest intent.

The diagram of a square may be appropriately taken as the emblem of efficiency.

The shortening of any one of the sides will prevent the formation of a perfect square.

Deficiency in any one of the sides means deficiency in the square.

The importance of the work will determine the size of the square. All other things being equal, the man is most efficient who knows how to do and does the most important work.

2. Love of Work

Love of work can be cultivated by the contemplation of its rewards.

Ordinarily, successful men prefer to work hard in youth.

Most of the lovers of bodily ease are compelled to work hard after the energy of youth is spent; and the Rider of the White Horse overtakes them while they are panting from unwilling exertion.

They are compelled in old age to do detail work in competition with young men of a new generation who are full of hope.

No blushing Aurora infuses strength and vigor into the blood of an old man driven to work. His eyes are not turned toward the east, and he knows that victory can scarcely reach him before the Reaper does.

Even if a young man has no higher ambition than to escape work he should put forth every effort of body and mind between 15 and 30.

The human being who expects to live for sixty years without doing any useful work, either at one end of his life or the other, will have to work hard at both ends.

If a man spends the first thirty years of his life learning how to render the world a useful service, he is training himself in the way he should go, and "when he is old he will not depart from it."

Misspent youth is followed by years of joyless labor—for enforced service is slavery, and the peon never sings at his toil.

Late in the fall, in the days of Aesop, the Ants gave some information to the Grasshoppers that was worth a million dollars a word.

"You have fiddled and danced all summer," said the Ants, "while we have been storing up grain and building houses for the winter. Now you must pay the fiddler."

There are men who inquire the way to Success and how long it will take to get there, as though the place for which they seek were far away, and only to be reached by some unknown path; whereas, in fact, it is so near, and the road to it so plain, that no one can miss it if his eyes are not closed or blinded. The thing most characteristic of men who have attained great things is that the hardest work they did and the most severe trials they passed through were at the beginning. Shall we say, then, that they were not most entitled to be called successful while they were surmounting the highest barriers? Surely the man who is doing his work faithfully and well is not only upon the road to Success, but whether he knows it or not, has arrived there.

3. Service

Art for art's sake and learning for learning's sake are close of kin.

So long as one simply desires to entertain or gratify himself, the "passionless pursuit of passionless intelligence" is in order; and devotion to any art for the love of the thing is not only proper, but has a touch of the divine in it when people are amusing themselves. But the man who is bent upon doing his share of the world's work makes art his servant and learning his powerful ally.

He has no time for dallying who sees a world suffering.

He makes his art serve; and his scholarship he harnesses to pull a heavy load.

The wisdom of the Mount was not less wonderful or inspir-

ing because of the simplicity with which it was expressed; nor is "Home, Sweet Home," less melodious because it lifts a burden from the weary heart.

Salmasius, when he wrote against the cause of liberty, was considered by many the greatest scholar in Europe, but when John Milton coupled an equal learning with the defense of freedom in his wonderful reply, he rendered a service that gave real dignity to scholarship, and put Salmasius among the mummies.

Webster was a great scholar, and every oration that rolled from his splendid lips proved it; but the speeches he made in defense of wrong teach a great lesson concerning the utter uselessness of scholarship when it is separated from service.

So, also, with invention, literature, science, and religion. The difference between Thomas A. Edison and many a forgotten alchemist and magician is in the simple majesty of the practical. The pious hermit may wear himself out in desert vigils to no account. He dies, "unwept, unhonored, and unsung," while the God-sent lassie of the Salvation Army works her toil-worn way into the secret presence of the Almighty.

Only service counts; and the "passionless pursuit of passionless intelligence" must always lead into mystery, and end in the oblivion from which it had its source.

121 Improvement a Gradual Process

As a concluding thought along this line of cultivation of personality, please consider the following suggestion: Many of our greatest men have come from surroundings not at all conducive to the cultivation of such character and accomplishments as they attained in later life. These men did not leap at once from positions of unattractive obscurity to great fame and fortune. It takes years of struggle for such things to be accomplished. If any of you are taking these lessons with the idea that at the conclusion of your course, no matter how clownish or rough or uncultured you have been at your beginning, you

will be polished gentlemen and ladies ready to transact business with the biggest men in the land, you are doomed to disappointment. Books will not teach the world all it needs and lectures will never make much change in human lives. It is the task of this course merely to point out to you the paths along which your personality can be properly cultivated, and especially to suggest points in which your selling ability can be improved. The rest lies entirely with you, and not so much in the next six weeks as in the next six years. The cultivation of an attractive and winning personality is a matter of many, many years, but if you heed the instructions given in this course, and if you then keep your eyes open to observe what people like in you and how they like to have you meet them, you cannot fail in the process of years to develop yourself into a strong and efficient salesman.

Measure Yourself as an Employer Would Measure You

Every good business man analyzes, studies, and seeks to understand the character of his subordinates.

His success or failure may depend upon the selection of *one* employe. He watches every habit and characteristic; and many a young man, without knowing it, has lost a good business chance because he was a stranger to bodily cleanliness.

The work of measuring employes is now done scientifically. The records of great companies show to the minute when each man arrived each morning, when he left, how much work he did, what kind of work it was, whether he ever stole money, what his neighbors think of him, how he treats his wife, and why he left his last position.

It is getting harder every year for a bad man to get a good job.

The Bertillon system of measuring criminals has established the fact that the enemies of society have certain physical characteristics in common.

Scientific measurers of employes know that there are certain

earmarks of success. The lack-lustre eye has never moved the world, and men with unclean bodies do not make good salesmen.

George Washington as a boy wrote for his own use a little code of morals and conduct. It was the Bertillon system by which he proposed to measure himself. He knew nothing about the great French system of measuring criminals, for it was not yet invented; but he had brains enough to realize that there ought to be a standard for the measurement of good men.

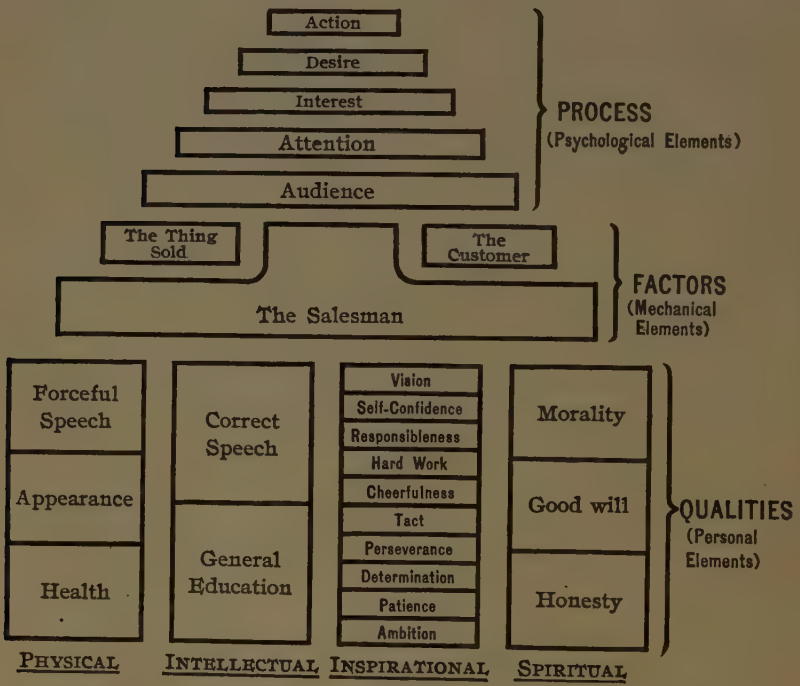

FIGURE 9. DIAGRAM OF THE SALE. (READ UPWARDS.)

He is a brave man and a wise one who dares to measure himself by fair standards, and then tries to live up to those standards.

The above chart will visualize the manner in which the

cultivation of the four main divisions of personal efficiency results finally in efficiency, love of work, and service.

Exercise for Lesson 25

Answer the following:

What is ability the result of? What is efficiency? What is the first requirement if work is to be efficient? Name the four respects in which important work must be done correctly as illustrated by the "Efficiency Square." Draw the square and name its sides and center.

The diagram on page 160 will illustrate the four pillars on which the personal efficiency of the salesman depends, the three factors of salesmanship, and the five steps in the process of a sale. Read it from the bottom up and memorize it, at least in its main features. It will be a guide of very great value to your entire course.

You can learn *by study:*

How to improve every personal quality.
How to understand each factor of the sale.
How to vitalize each step in the process of the sale.

LESSON 26

HABIT

It is a commonly accepted idea of jurisprudence that law is founded upon precedent.

A certain rule of conduct in certain transactions between men persists for a series of years.

Presently a dispute arises over such a transaction, perhaps before a statute covering the point has been enacted.

The judge rules that since the recognized custom has been so-and-so the decision must be in accordance with the custom, and thereafter other courts accept the decision of the first court in similar cases.

Habit does for the individual precisely what it does for the state or nation.

A certain rule of conduct becomes established in the daily life of a man.

Presently he finds that because he has done a certain thing in a certain way many times it has become fixed in his mind as a law of conduct.

Right or wrong, it is established by custom, just as custom is originally responsible for law, even though it may not conform to the sense of justice of some people; and the habit becomes the rule of life.

But here the similarity ceases. Law is seldom wrong. Habit, in the cases of some people, may be diabolically wrong from the cradle to the grave; and the cemeteries are full of bodies that came there too soon because of habits that were vicious and injurious.

The laws of some nations are all wrong, because the people who made them were ignorant, dependent, or vile, and the laws of individual action will be honest or degraded in accordance with the ideals that control them.

We have seen that the brain is not an echo, a shadow, or a filament any more than is the leg, the lungs, or the liver. It is an actual organism and will carry a scar or build up a tissue the same as the biceps, the solar plexus, or the neck.

Whatever tissue is built up in the brain will remain there. If it is good, good remains. If bad, bad remains.

When a man's sixty his mind will be what he has made it. It is important for a man who wants to live in a brick house that he shall build one of brick. Yet here is this difference: a man can exchange one house for another. He can't exchange minds with anybody.

Success, like Defeat, Can Come through Habit

The old, old cry of defeat through the influence of some bad habit ought to get us to thinking.

Is it true that men of talent have failed because they drank themselves to death? Is it true that men have acquired such selfish habits of miserliness that they have lost all power to use money nobly? Is it true that any habit can get control of one—coffee, tobacco, whisky, or anything else—that conscience or good desires are unequal to the contest with it?

If it is, and a power of such resistless and overwhelming force can be set in motion in our lives by a trifling habit, why not have habit at work for us instead of against us?

Why not begin the formation of habits that will help us to accomplish the high purposes of life?

The energetic step, the soft, gentle voice, the light meal, the half-hour of daily exercise, the neighborly smile, the pleasant greeting, the warm handclasp, the interesting conversation, the sparkling eye, the straightforward, truth-compelling manner, the eight-hour sleep, the regular bath, the daily study hour—all these are matters of habit.

Put in constant motion, they will work for you day after day, and year after year.

They will slowly and almost imperceptibly make you strong and perfect.

They will help you to accomplish the ends you aim at, rather than defeat them.

Bad Habits are Most Easily Broken by Substitution

Resolutions *not* to do certain things rarely amount to much. The thing that counts is a résolution to *do* something.

To resolve never again to lie is a negative method of self-improvement; but to determine upon honesty and truth is a positive step. It gives a real standard and impetus.

The best way to avoid bad habits is to form good ones; and, realizing the force of the old, to forsake it entirely. The old blackboard illustration used so often in Sunday school is to the point.

"To rid yourself of HABIT, erase all the letters.
If you erase only the first one you still have A BIT left.
If you erase two, a little BIT is still there.
Rub out the next letter and IT still remains.
Don't leave even the last letter, for T begins trouble."

Psychological Explanation of the Force of Habit

M. Leon Dumont, in his Essay on Habit,* gives a perfectly simple explanation of this great force in life:

"Everyone knows how a garment, after having been worn a certain time, clings to the shape of the body better than when it was new; there has been a change in the tissue, and this change is a new habit of cohesion. A lock works better after being used some time; at the outset more force was required to overcome certain roughnesses in the mechanism. The overcoming of their resistance is a phenomenon of habituation. It costs less trouble to fold a paper when it has been folded already. This saving of trouble is due to the essential nature of habit, which brings it about that to reproduce the effect, a less amount of the outward cause is required. The sounds of a violin improve by use in the hands of an able artist, because the fibres of the wood at last contract habits of vibration conformed to harmonic relations. This is what gives such inestimable value to instruments that have belonged to great masters. Water, in flowing, hollows out for itself a channel, which grows broader and deeper; and after having ceased to flow, it resumes, when it flows again, the path traced by itself before. Just so, the impressions of outer objects fashion for themselves in the nervous system more and more appropriate paths, and these vital phenomena recur under similar excitements from without, when they have been interrupted a certain time."

To realize the importance of good habits and the possibility of forming them through effort it is necessary to know that the

* Revue Philosophique, Vol. 1, p. 324.

brain substance is more readily improved and reconstructed than muscular tissues. Dr. Carpenter says:*

"There is no part of the organism of man in which the reconstructive activity is as great, during the whole period of life, as it is in the ganglionic substance of the brain. This is indicated by the enormous supply of blood which it receives. . . . It is, moreover, a fact of great significance that the nerve-substance is specially distinguished by its reparative power. For while injuries of other tissues (such as muscular) which are distinguished by the specialty of their structure and endowments, are repaired by substance of a lower or less specialized type, those of nerve-substance are repaired by a complete reproduction of the normal tissue."

That is a great idea worth framing in the inmost gallery of the mind. If physical wounds can be healed and physical tissues made strong, how much more important the reconstruction and strengthening of mental powers!

And how important it is for each person that correct habits be formed early. Wm. James, writing on this point, says:†

"Habit is thus the enormous fly-wheel of society, its most precious conservative agent. It alone is what keeps us all within the bounds of ordinance, and saves the children of fortune from the envious uprisings of the poor. It alone prevents the hardest and most repulsive walks of life from being deserted by those brought up to tread therein. It keeps the fisherman and the deck-hand at sea through the winter; it holds the miner in his darkness, and nails the countryman to his log-cabin and his lonely farm through all the months of snow; it protects us from invasion by the natives of the desert and frozen zone. It dooms us all to fight out the battle of life upon the lines of nurture or our early choice, and to make the best of a pursuit that disagrees, because there is no other for which we are fitted, and it is too late to begin again. It keeps different social strata from mixing. Already

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* Carpenter's "Mental Physiology," p. 339.
† James' "Psychology, Advanced Course," p. 121.

at the age of twenty-five years you see the professional mannerism settling down on the young commercial traveler, on the young doctor, on the young minister, on the young counsellor-at-law. You see the little lines of cleavage running through the character, the tricks of thought, the prejudices, the ways of the 'shop,' in a word, from which the man can by-and-by no more escape than his coat-sleeve can suddenly fall into a new set of folds. On the whole, it is best he should not escape. It is well for the world that in most of us, by the age of thirty, the character has set like plaster and will never soften again.

"The great thing, then, in all education is to make our nervous system our ally instead of our enemy. It is to fund and capitalize our acquisitions, and live at ease upon the interest of the fund. For this we must make automatic and habitual, as early as possible, as many useful actions as we can, and guard against growing into ways that are likely to be disadvantageous to us, as we should guard against the plague. The more of the details of our daily life we can hand over to the effortless custody of automatism, the more our higher powers of mind will be set free for their own proper work. There is no more miserable human being than one in whom nothing is habitual but indecision, and for whom the lighting of every cigar, the drinking of every cup, the time of rising and going to bed every day, and the beginning of every bit of work, are subjects of express volitional deliberation. Full half the time of such a man goes to the deciding or regretting of matters which ought to be so ingrained in him as practically not to exist for his consciousness at all. If there be such daily duties not yet ingrained in any one of my readers, let him begin this very hour to set the matter right."

There are two important suggestions offered by Professor Bain* as to how to accomplish the desired result. They are:

1. In forming a new habit or breaking an old one, launch yourself with as decided an initiative as possible. Leave no room for backsliding. Place yourself in surroundings and circum-

* Bain's "Emotions and the Will."

stances that will encourage and reinforce the new way. Break old associations where necessary. Surround yourself with every possible aid.

2. Never allow an exception to occur.

Practice is More Important than Precept, So Express Your Resolve in Some Active Way

Professor James has said so much on this topic and has said it so well that I quote from him again in conclusion:*

"No matter how full a reservoir of maxims one may possess, and no matter how good one's sentiments may be, if one has not taken advantage of every concrete opportunity to act, one's character may remain entirely unaffected for the better. With mere good intentions, hell is proverbially paved. And this is an obvious consequence of the principles we have laid down. A 'character,' as J. S. Mill says, 'is a completely fashioned will'; and a will, in the sense in which he means it, is an aggregate of tendencies to act in a firm and prompt and definite way upon all the principal emergencies of life. A tendency to act only becomes effectively ingrained in us in proportion to the uninterrupted frequency with which the actions actually occur, and the brain 'grows' to their use. Every time a resolve or a fine glow of feeling evaporates without bearing practical fruit it is worse than a chance lost; it works so as positively to hinder future resolutions and emotions from taking the normal path of discharge. There is no more contemptible type of human character than that of the nerveless sentimentalist and dreamer, who spends his life in a weltering sea of sensibility and emotion, but who never does a manly concrete deed.

"As a final practical maxim, relative to these habits of the will, we may, then, offer something like this: Keep the faculty of effort alive in you by a little gratuitous exercise every day. That is, be systematically ascetic or heroic in little unnecessary

* James' "Psychology, Advanced Course," p. 125.

points, do every day or two something for no other reason than that you would rather not do it, so that when the hour of dire need draws nigh, it may find you not unnerved and untrained to stand the test. Ascetism of this sort is like the insurance which a man pays on his house and goods. The tax does him no good at the time, and possibly may never bring him a return. But if the fire does come, his having paid it will be his salvation from ruin. So with the man who has daily insured himself to habits of concentrated attention, energetic volition, and self-denial in unnecessary things. He will stand like a tower when everything rocks around him, and when his softer fellow-mortals are winnowed like chaff in the blast."

Insurance is the last word in the protection of modern business and property. Habit insurance is for a like reason the last word in the development of character.

Exercise for Lesson 26

What is habit? In what respect are habit and court precedents similar? What fixes a habit? Can bad habits become fixed? Can good habits become fixed? How are bad habits most easily broken? How can you make the powerful force of habit work for you?

LESSON 27

THE WILL

It is customary to classify the functions of the human mind as

1. Knowing
2. Feeling
3. Willing

The exercise of the will may be along the two following lines:

1. The mind may effect a change in its own states.

2. It may effect a change in its physical surroundings by means of bodily movements.

These two methods of employing the will are conceded to be the only methods by which the will can work, and I call attention to them here to remind you that the first method (when the will brings a change in the mind's state or states) illustrates the effect of the will upon the condition of *feeling;* and the second (when a change in physical environment is brought about) shows how the will can act to modify conditions in *knowing.*

A simple illustration may make both of these propositions clear.

A young man found himself in a spell of the "blues" because he failed to secure a rise in salary.

After worrying himself nearly ill over his failure, he resolved to stop worrying, because anxiety produced no good results. This brought about a wholesome change in his state of *feeling.*

He then resolved to attend a night school in order to qualify himself for success in his position. This bodily movement brought a change in environment that led to increased *knowing.*

This is simple enough, but only half of the story. The rest is this:

Will is not a distinct faculty of the mind, opposed to knowing and feeling. It acts in connection with them. As Prof. James says, "We do not first have a sensation of thought and then have to add something to it to get a movement. Movement is the natural immediate effect of feeling."

This is common sense. It is also science. Just as the will acts through methods that bring about changes in feeling and knowing, so also the improvement or cultivation of knowledge and feeling strengthens the will.

We act right when we know and feel right.

The young man found that the change which he brought about in his feelings and his surroundings in due time reacted, or acted back again, upon his will, and strengthened it.

So it is in every case, for each and all, and everybody. The arm lifts the weight, the weight strengthens the arm, the stronger

arm lifts a heavier weight, and still more strength is created in the arm to lift a still heavier weight.

All of this you may find told in scientific language by Dr. J. E. Creighton, in the *Encyclopedia Americana,* under "The Will."

This first law of will cultivation through arbitrarily changing bodily states and surroundings is the greatest law of human development, the story of the alchemy of the soul. No magic carpet of Arabia is more wonderful, no seal of Caesar more certain in authority, no chemical miracle more positive of results, than this commonplace little recipe for the strengthening of the human will.

General Development Increases Will Development

The simple plan of will development just outlined leads to this important and inevitable conclusion:

The development of will is possible only through the development of mind as a whole.

This statement, if true, sheds a remarkable light upon the connection between education and the general growth of character.

A man's power generally increases with the development of his education.

His will grows apace with knowledge and feeling. Note this, however. His will to act may not grow. Man wills to act or not to act. He may will not to act, which is often just as important.

And note another matter. An uneducated man may have a stronger will than an educated one, but that does not affect the statement that a man's will grows apace with his own knowledge and feeling. It is not the function of mind-study to compare one man with another.

All that this statement implies is that a man increases his own will power by the effort that he puts forth in enlarging his knowling and his feeling power.

We have, therefore, this formula for the salesman: Study your goods; feel that they are what they should be; and the will to sell them must increase.

Selective Attention

The essence of the action of the will is in what is known as "selective attention"—the power of the mind to fasten upon whatsoever it chooses.

If man had no such power he would be obliged to give his attention to whatever was closest, or largest, or noisiest, or felt or smelt the worst or best, according to which was more immediate or stronger. Outside considerations would bind his brain constantly; and it is a mark of the weak-willed that this is true of them.

Hence, where the knowing and the feeling powers are limited we have weak-minded or weak-willed people. A man is a Democrat or a Republican, a Baptist or an unbeliever, because his father was, or his neighbors are; and stubbornness in adhering to such inherited or ready-made belief is a mark of weakness of the will rather than strength; for a strong will would lead to a study of, and reliance upon, the facts in the case.

The "selective" quality of attention is what enables a person to cast aside strong influences that are near at hand, and exercise the will upon whatever he chooses; and yet the fact remains that the greater intensity or immediate attractiveness of an object gives it a stronger claim upon the attention than it would otherwise have.

Hence, we have another formula for the salesman: *By exercising the power of selective attention upon your own mind you will make the best possible use of the natural forces of will in your selling talk.*

The Three Kinds of Action

Action is ordinarily said to be voluntary and involuntary.

Modern psychologists have a more interesting classification, as follows:

Reflex action (Involuntary)
Emotional action (Mixed)
Deliberative action (Voluntary)

To take advantage of each in the best way, is the study of the skilled salesman, when it comes to taking an order.

Reflex Action

Reflex action is what follows without thought, whether with or without the approval of judgment. It is the will acting without the aid of judgment. It is spasmodic, or servile, or thoughtless, or what not,—but always immediate and involuntary.

It is this sort of action which the salesman hopes to secure when he puts a pencil in the buyer's hand, points to the dotted line, and says: "Sign here, please."

The skillful salesman always knows when to do this and when not to do it. Reflex action is largely muscular and sub-conscious. The suggestion, "Sign here, please," is valuable chiefly when the buyer is convinced, and can be "landed" while the spirit is on him.

Make the thing easy to do at the time that the prospective buyer is most likely to do it. That is all there is to a very important idea—an idea that has made many a mail order or circularizing campaign a wonderful success—an idea that in the hands of a skilled salesman brings about a promptness of action that is often mistaken for hypnotism. In fact, I have known several salesmen who boasted that they were hypnotists, and really thought they were, when what they really understood was nothing but this first principle of securing the advantage of reflex action. This will be discussed again under the heading "Compelling Action."

Emotional Action

Emotional action is that which is controlled largely by the emotions, whether reflex or deliberative in its general leanings.

To use a knowledge of this kind of action in securing an order, the salesman must understand the peculiarities of the customer.

The inexperienced salesman is likely to think of emotion chiefly in connection with charity, favoritism, or friendly sympathy, and to appeal to these emotions in urging a purchase.

The salesman who studies deeper, knows that in business these emotions are kept locked up in the safety vault, where they can be produced by the customer after hours, for the benefit of his family.

He knows that the exactly opposite emotions are stronger in the average mind.

He appeals to emulation by depicting the success of those competitors who are using his line.

He appeals to the love of luxury by every possible reference to the ease and comfort afforded by what he sells.

He appeals to the love of money, when he can induce the buyer to believe the buyer will get a large share of the profit involved.

When he sees that the buyer is easily influenced by emotions, he uses arguments in their emotional rather than their logical aspects.

To say, "This will benefit us both," appeals to the deliberative or logical instinct. To say, "I want to see you make money on this," has in it the spirit of friendliness and appeals to the emotional.

The skilled salesman understands his man and uses the sort of argument that fits.

Hence we have another formula: *To secure emotional action, study the emotions.* Every psychological theory, you see, simmers itself down, ultimately, to a common-sense fact.

Deliberative Action

The third kind of action, known as deliberative action, is what follows thought with the approval of judgment. It is the will acting exclusively upon the instruction of the intellect. It is always voluntary, and based upon close, careful reasoning along the lines outlined in Lesson 7. Lesson 7 should be referred to at this point and brought again to mind.

The salesman can hope to succeed in appealing to deliberative action only by a thorough knowledge of the process of thinking that is going on in the buyer's mind and a presentation of his

subject that is based upon this process. He must look for signs that his buyer has observed every fact he wishes to impress upon him.

He must then furnish him with data for comparing one line of goods with another.

He must then furnish him with the reasons why his line is superior and must see that his reasons are strong enough so that a favorable judgment will ensue.

The action in this case will take care of itself. It simply requires that a salesman be thoroughly posted in every detail in regard to his goods.

More and more as time goes on men are selected as buyers of big business houses who are subject to neither reflex action nor emotional action to a very great extent, but whose action belongs to the deliberative class.

More and more we learn that the salesman who is successful today must be the salesman who can present "Reasons Why."

From the above we have this formula: *To secure deliberative action, study your goods, your competitors, the markets and fashions, and your proposition.*

The Will of the Customer, like That of the Salesman, is Strengthened by Knowing and Feeling

We have already seen that the will of the salesman to sell is increased by knowing and feeling, because willing is never separate from knowing and feeling.

It is equally important to know and make use of the fact that exactly the same thing is true of the buyer. His will to buy is increased by knowing and feeling.

It takes two to make a quarrel, a speech, or a bargain.

Moreover, in its best sense, selling goods is not a war or battle of minds, but a peaceable understanding.

It is only by understanding the buyer's mind that the salesman can hope for success; and this is the first fundamental to such an understanding, that the will of the customer must act, and does

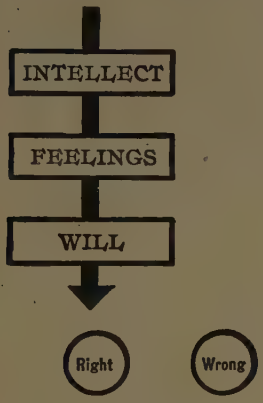
act, in obedience to the universal law of the development of the will that was discussed in the first section of this lesson.

Or, to put it in another way, a sale does not depend upon the conquest of one will by another, but upon the union of two wills.

What a flood of light this sheds upon the buffoonery and effrontery of the salesman who tries to bully his prospective customer and is always endeavoring to "put something across."

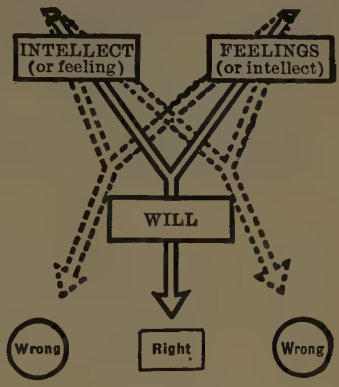
Recognizing the existence of a will on the part of the buyer, and his right to have it, the sensible Knight of the Grip tries to

FIGURE 10. RELATION BETWEEN INTELLECT, FEELING, AND WILL



The Ideal

When thought, feeling, and will are on the side of right, wrong is impossible.



The Actual

Actually, the intellect, feelings and will are never entirely upon the side of right or entirely upon the side of wrong. Some people are governed most by the intellect, others by the feelings. The will should hold them in balance, as shown in the illustration. Both faculties should be trained. Education trains the intellect. Action trains the feelings.

bring about in the mind of the buyer the same state of confidence and belief that exists in his own. And when he does this he is a good salesman, even though his speech is halting, his appearance unprepossessing, and his mannerisms unattractive! A sales manager can stake his reputation on this sort of salesman every time, for he understands the vital and central truth of the whole business.

And then, having set up his standards, such a salesman is led at once into the very portals of truth. He knows now that he must do for the customer's mind exactly what he did for his own, and in accordance with exactly the same psychological principles!

He must lead the customer's will by means of the customer's knowing and feeling, exactly as he did his own.

Hence we have another formula: *The customer must be won through his will, and not against his will.*

Exercise for Lesson 27

What are the three great functions of the human mind? What is the first great law of will development? What effect has general development upon will cultivation? What is selective attention? What are the three kinds of action? Can a customer be won against his will? How must he be won? What two factors contend for supremacy in influencing the will? Upon what does a strong will depend? Upon what does a right will depend?

LESSON 28

MEMORY

The value of memory in all avenues of life is almost beyond estimate.

For the salesman it is especially valuable. To be unable to recall the name of your customer, or, worse still, to see him on

the street without recognizing him, is from his point of view almost unpardonable. Moreover, to forget what you have said to him or to forget what you made up your mind you ought to say to him next, is an overwhelming misfortune to the salesman.

Development of a good memory depends upon many things.

1. Physical Health

Scientists agree that the foundation of a good memory is vigorous health. Many facts prove this. The failing memory of old people; the poor memory of sick people; the exceedingly strong memory of vigorous young children; all go to help establish the truth of this statement.

2. Concentration, Attention, and Repetition

Concentration may come through either a natural interest in the subject or forced attention to it. Attention and memory are closely related. If you wish to remember any fact, you naturally and spontaneously endeavor to center your attention upon it exclusively.

Another evidence of the value of concentration to the memory lies in the fact that any overwhelming catastrophe, any great or tremendous excitement, will fasten an incident in the memory so that sometimes facts of childhood are remembered after 60, 70, or 80 years.

3. Law of Association

We remember certain facts or things by associating them with other facts or things that were impressed upon us at the same time or place.

A good story-teller says, "I recall stories with great ease by associating them with the persons who told them to me and memorizing a list of fifteen or twenty of my friends' names with whom these stories are associated."

The law of association is probably the chief of all the laws relating to memory.

4. The Law of Persistence

Nothing that the mind has learned is ever lost. The memory is like a storehouse in which we keep filed away all our past thoughts.

You may be sure that everything that has been put in your mind is still there. Remembering things is simply a process of searching in this storehouse until the thing desired is found.

There is a theory in psychology known as the "fringe of consciousness" theory.

This theory is that although a man thinks consciously only one thing at a time, there are many other ideas close to his thoughts which the psychologist calls "fringes of consciousness."

In this respect the mind may be compared to the eyesight. You can look at only one point at a time, but while you are looking carefully and steadily at one object in the room you may be conscious of hundreds of other objects. For instance, as I sit here, I am looking at a particular point on the back of a chair. I am conscious of the presence of the remainder of the chair, of an electric light, of a suit-case, of a filing cabinet, of a row of books, several pictures on the wall, a typewriter, a desk on which the typewriter stands, a carpet, another person in the room, my own feet, legs, and hands, the end of my own nose, and dozens of other minor objects in the room, though as a matter of fact I am looking directly at only one point.

So with memory. While you are thinking of one thing, you have "fringes of consciousness" of dozens of other things and your mind will travel with lightning speed from one to another as the memory searches for the fact it wants.

Herein lies the value of persistence in thinking, as a means of training the memory. Think long enough and you will usually be able to think of the thing you want.

A prominent business man says, "Finding my memory going back on me, I resolved to train it by exercising persistence.

"At first I would often stop fifteen or twenty minutes in a

busy day to search for some fact of memory that I wanted, as, for instance, the price of a certain piece of goods, the name of a certain firm, the name of one of my employes that I had forgotten.

"I presently found that it was getting easier. I could think of the desired fact in five or ten minutes. Presently a minute would bring me the information I wanted and now my memory is almost instantaneous."

This man learned to find things in the storehouse of his memory.

5. No Overloading

Do not expect your memory to do too much for you. It is a mistake for either a child or a man to attempt to learn by memory things that are useless or things that can be easily found by reference or examination. To overload the memory, is to strain it.

Many psychologists declare that it is not possible to enlarge the native capacity of the memory to any great extent. For instance, Professor James says on page 663 of his *Advanced Psychology,* "All improvement of the memory lies in the line of elaborating the associates of each of the several things to be remembered. No amount of culture would seem capable of modifying a man's general retentiveness. This is a physiological quality, given once for all with his organization and which he can never hope to change. It differs no doubt in disease and health and it is a fact of observation that it is better in fresh and vigorous hours than when we are fagged or ill. We may say then that a man's native tenacity will fluctuate somewhat with his hygiene, and that whatever is good for his tone of health will also be good for his memory. We may even say that whatever amount of intellectual exercise is bracing to the general tone and nutrition of the brain will also be profitable to the general retentiveness, but more than this we cannot say; and this, it is obvious, is far less than people believe."

Many authorities differ with Professor James on this point, but all agree that overloading the memory is harmful and that

the comparison of memory to a storehouse of given dimensions is reasonably accurate.

The great problem in memory training, therefore, is not to increase the size of the storehouse, but rather to learn how to find the things that are already there.

Aids to Memory

Aids to memory are classified by Professor James into three methods, which he calls the mechanical, the ingenious, and the judicious.

Mechanical Methods. These are the methods of concentration, association, repetition, etc. Attention is so directly connected with memory that it is commonly conceded that the best way to build up a memory is to pay attention to it while the fact is being learned which you desire to memorize.

A modern method of teaching children, known as the Montessori Method, is based upon the proposition that children learn more easily when the same information is carried to them simultaneously through a number of various channels. For instance, when they are learning to read they will see the word, hear the word, spell the word, and write the word, all simultaneously or nearly so; and in addition to this simultaneous use of eye, ear, voice, and hand they will be taught the shape of letters by feeling them with their fingers in addition to seeing them.

Judicious Methods. These consist of plans of classifying knowledge of any subject and working it into a rational system. All the sciences are based upon such methods. This book on salesmanship illustrates this method, for we have used dozens of charts and diagrams to enable the student to visualize the main outlines of the science of salesmanship.

Ingenious Methods. There are hundreds of ingenious methods that have been invented. They consist usually in some sort of figure alphabet in which each number is represented by one or more letters, or they consist of verses of poetry in which the swing of the rhyme helps us to remember the thing desired. One

of the most familiar of these methods is the way of remembering the number of days in the months by learning the old familiar rhyme, "Thirty days hath September, April, June, and November, etc." One of the most difficult problems in spelling is the question as to whether "e" comes first in the combination "ei" or "ie" when preceded by an "l" or a "c." The word "lice" helps to fix this in the memory, for the general rule is that when the letter is "l" it is followed by "i" and when the letter "c" is used it is followed by the letter "e"; the exceptions are so few that they can be learned easily.

A very valuable course of lessons on this subject is *Dickson's Course in Memory Training.*

Exercises in the development of memory will be given in the next lesson.

Exercise for Lesson 28

Name the five things upon which memory depends. How does physical health affect the power of memory? What effect has attention upon memory? What is the law of association as to memory? What effect has persistence upon memory? What harm is done by overloading the memory? Name a mechanical method of aiding the memory; a judicious method; an ingenious method.

LESSON 29

EXERCISES FOR DEVELOPING THE MEMORY

Exercise One

Upon meeting a group of strangers, not to exceed four or six to begin with, retire to a corner of the room and write their names in your note book or on a slip of paper. If possible, sit quietly aside and watch them with their names written before you until you can call them by name on returning to the company. If this is not possible, take the list home with you and study it carefully, recalling each person's face as you see his name. By

going over this list once a day for several days, you will reach the point gradually at which a single reading of the list will be sufficient. You can then work with a larger list until you can handle fifteen or twenty names in this way.

Exercise Two

Upon meeting a group of persons, do not fail to repeat the name of each one as it is given to you and if it is not spoken distinctly, ask for it a second time to be sure that you have it firmly fixed in your mind. Then use it frequently in talking to him during the evening and if you are not firmly convinced that you will remember it, write it down when you get home, and keep a list of such acquaintances, going over it periodically to see that you recall the face of each one. For the salesman who meets one person at a time and keeps a list of his customers, this is a valuable exercise.

Exercise Three

From your city directory or some other source, find out the names of all the people living in a particular block. Walk the length of that block once a day for five days, repeating to yourself the name of the owner as you pass each house.

Exercise Four

Read a chapter of a book (*this* chapter of *this* book, preferably). After reading it, go over it in your mind, trying to recall, not the words of the chapter, but the ideas it contains, if possible in the order in which they were presented. After thinking them over, repeat them aloud to some other person or to yourself. After speaking them aloud, write them down. This exercise performed for five consecutive days will work wonders in the retentiveness of your memory.

Exercise Five

Perform an experiment with a complete essay written by some favorite author, in the same manner as in exercise four.

Read a book and use in the same manner. It will be well to use several different kinds of books for this exercise, for instance, a novel, a text-book, and a history. For our purposes this is one of the most valuable memory exercises that can be devised.

Exercise Six. For Salesmen

When you are in a store, note the important details of the stock carried by your customer. Upon leaving him, go over these in your mind. Then, if possible, repeat them aloud to yourself. After this, write them down.

Lay aside your paper and on the next evening try to duplicate the list you wrote before. Do this five successive evenings without comparing your papers until the end of the fifth evening, at which time, by comparing them, you can see what you left out each day.

Do not attempt to memorize the main items carried by more than one or two customers each week to begin with, for you are now simply trying to train your memory. After you have reached the proper stage of efficiency you will find that you can memorize the important details of the stocks of all of your customers with a few visits; but in training your memory you must begin slowly.

Exercise Seven. For Salesmen

After you have taken an order and gone back to your hotel, rewrite the order without referring to the order blank. Compare it with the order blank to see how well you have remembered the order. Repeat this with a different order and with an increasing number of orders each day. You will eventually find yourself capable of rewriting every order you have taken during the day.

Do not make the mistake of depending upon your memory instead of the order blank. Remember that this is simply an exercise to train the memory and that memory is a big asset to the salesman, but the accountant must have the signed order blank.

Exercise Eight. For the Student

If your work lends itself to regularity, make out a program of the day's work and memorize it. Make your attendance upon fixed exercises habitual through memory.

Exercise Nine. For the Accountant or Business Manager

Secure the financial statement of your bank for any given date. Study it until you thoroughly understand it. Do not try to memorize the exact number of dollars and cents in each item, but try to fix the approximate amounts in your mind as you study it. Then lay aside the statement and reproduce it in approximate figures.

A daily drill in this exercise will not only add to your memory but will also react upon your general knowledge of how to analyze statements.

Exercise Ten

As in the exercises for the eye, step into a room with which you are not familiar. Observe all the objects in the room, not hastily as in the eye exercises, but carefully, giving yourself all the time you require, say four or five minutes. Go out of the room and write a list of the things in it. Return to the room and add to your list such objects as you failed to remember the first time. Repeat this exercise in the same room until you can write the entire list perfectly.

Exercise Eleven

After a conversation with a friend or business acquaintance, retire to your office or room and first think over the entire conversation. Afterwards reproduce it in the exact words that were used so far as you can remember them, in the form that an author would write a play.

Begin with short conversations and increase the exercise with longer conversations as you become proficient.

Exercise Twelve

At the end of the day, go over in your mind the entire proceedings of the day. After this, if you have a wife, or husband, or some friend who is willing and anxious to listen to you, recount the proceedings of the day to him. After doing so, if you have time, write them down. This exercise requires so much time, however, that it is usually the best practice simply to recount them to someone and make no attempt to write them.

Exercise Thirteen

If you have forgotten the name of a person, or a place, or have seen a face and cannot recall the name of the person, sit down for half an hour in absolute quiet, centering your mind on the problem of recalling that name. You will often find that a name you thought you had forgotten, you can recall. The first few exercises of this kind may take twenty to thirty minutes. Indeed, some of them may have to be given up altogether, but you will discover as you practice this exercise that you can gradually reduce the amount of time required to recall a name or place until finally your memory will become instantaneous.

It would be absurd, of course, to waste half an hour of your life every time you desired to recall a name, a date, an amount, or any other fact, but you will not have to waste half an hour in this process very many times before you discover that your memory is improving and you have reduced the time to ten or twenty minutes, then to five minutes, then to one minute, until finally your memory becomes reasonably accurate in all respects.

This is one of the most important of all memory exercises because, as has been explained, memory is a storehouse and in training your memory you are simply training yourself to find something that is already in the storehouse, and find it quickly. All efforts to enlarge the general scope of memory by learning poems, columns of figures, lists of names, etc., verbatim, are difficult and laborious, and by some very high authorities are declared to be altogether useless.

Exercise for Lesson 29

Write *from memory* thirteen phrases that will recall to you the thirteen exercises of this lesson, using the method presented in exercise four.

LESSON 30

IMAGINATION

Sensations or nerve impressions are connected with the present and the nerves cannot receive sensations any time but now.

Memory connects us with the past. Imagination connects us with the future. It is the faculty of combining memories of experiences in new combinations by the hundreds, thousands, and millions.

It will at once be seen that when one has had a dozen or a hundred thoughts, to say nothing of a thousand or a million, the combinations which can be made of them by imagination are so numberless as not to be capable of being counted. It is, therefore, evident that imagination does not depend to a very large extent upon the number of experiences one has had, for even in the case of a person of few experiences the number of possible combinations is beyond calculation.

It does depend upon previous experience to this extent, however, that a man of successful past experience can cultivate and does cultivate a more practical imagination than one who is less able to couple common sense with his imagination.

Imagination is like memory in the fact that the volume or size of it is not so important as the quality.

It is very much unlike it in the respect that it is not a storehouse of given dimensions, but is an entire universe of boundless possibilities to everyone who cares to use it and who will learn how to use it profitably.

Imagination is valuable because:

1. It is the best substitute for experience. Imagine a situation and you will mentally rehearse what you would say and do

under those circumstances, and that is next best to the actual experience. It will prepare you in advance for the situation when it arises.

2. In imagination we usually picture ourselves in respect to our best qualities rather than our worst, and this calls forth and gives exercise to the noblest there is in us. To imagine what you would say in anger is correspondingly dangerous, for it is the next thing to being actually angry.

It was this that led Solomon to say, "As a man thinketh in his heart, so is he."

We gradually become the products of our imagination. And so it is that the man who thinks evil in his imagination has committed the evil already. He has thought something that can be exceeded in its influence upon him only by the act itself. As we shall see later, the most important function of will power is to enable a man to control his thoughts. It is fortunate, therefore, that in imagination we usually picture ourselves in respect to our best qualities.

3. It calls forth new combinations and develops initiative.

Initiative is one of the most valuable results of thought.

Obedience is doing the thing when you are told once; initiative is doing it before you are told at all. Imagination and initiative are inseparable and it is because of this that imagination has its chief value.

No great thing, in fact no thing at all, has ever been done that was not done first in someone's imagination.

The architect must imagine the building before he builds it. The author must imagine the story before he writes it. The salesman must imagine the sale before he can make it, otherwise he has not made it. It simply happened.

Imagination becomes harmful when

1. We imagine ourselves doing evil or failing to succeed. The man who imagines himself a failure is a failure already and will be until he changes the current of his imagination by the exercise of Will.

2. We do not concentrate on a single topic long enough to really see in our minds all sides of it. Such a fault makes a mind visionary, selfish, or evil.

When we say a man is visionary, it is simply a way of saying that a man has exercised his imagination without concentrating on a single topic long enough to see it in all its practical relations.

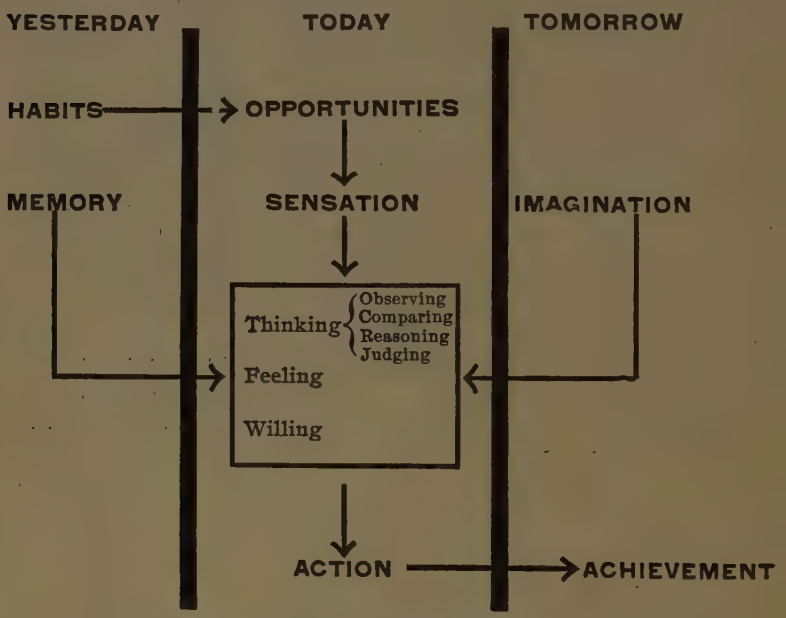


FIGURE 11. INFLUENCE OF HABITS, OPPORTUNITIES, MEMORY, AND IMAGINATION UPON ACHIEVEMENT

When we say that imagination makes a man selfish, we mean that he has not concentrated his imagination upon the idea of possessing the thing he desires until he has really imagined all sides of the subject and seen the suffering of others that his selfishness will result in.

When we say that imagination produces evil thoughts, we simply mean that a man has not studied the power of imagination

to produce good thoughts instead of evil, or he lacks the will power to regulate his imagination and control it for his own good.

3. We imagine one thing while doing another. Imagination should never be allowed to take the place of concentration upon the useful thing that is being done. This is what we call day-dreaming. No man ever can make a success as a salesman who puts his imagination at work on some far-away topic while he is selling goods. There is no doubt that imagination is one of the mightiest forces in all mental life. Our next lesson, which presents exercises for improving this faculty, is one of the most important in the book.

Exercise for Lesson 30

Study Figure 10 and write an essay of between one hundred and two hundred words upon the way Habits, Opportunities, Memory, and Imagination affect Achievement.

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LESSON 31

EXERCISES FOR THE IMAGINATION

For most people it is not necessary to practice exercises in constructing subjects for imagination. Most people have vivid imaginations and they need exercises not in the building up of imagination, but rather in making imagination practical and serviceable.

There are people of both classes, and for this reason we present, first, exercises to develop the imagination, and, second, exercises to direct the imagination along practical lines.

Exercises to Develop the Imagination

Exercise One

Think of a river you once saw, a person you know, a song you once heard, a rose with the odor of which you are familiar, a

dinner you have enjoyed, and an oar handle that you have felt and used.

Put them all together in a scene of the imagination.

Exercise Two

Think of an article of merchandise with which you are familiar, a business organization that you understand, a selling plan that you approve, the details of a manager's work, your own ambition to be a manager, and your own desire to work.

Put them all together in a scene of the imagination. Take a pencil and piece of paper and outline the things you would do in the place you have imagined yourself.

Exercise Three

Think of a horse, wings, clouds, a man riding bareback, yourself, and the earth a mile below.

Put these all together in a scene of the imagination.

Exercise Four

Think of some nuisance, or some inconvenience of life, or some laborious process in manufacturing. Think of a machine to correct the evil. Imagine the details of the machine. If you are skillful with a pencil, draw them, showing each detail. Put them all together in a scene of the imagination.

Exercises to Correct the Imagination.

These exercises must be based on certain assumptions of fact and you will have to select from among them those that fit your case and use them only.

Exercise Five

You are a poor person, but you love to imagine yourself riding in an automobile which you can not afford. Your power of imagination is good, but it is not properly directed. You must direct it, not along the line of giving up your imagination of the riding, but along the line of how to get the automobile.

To do this think of the place where you are employed, or expect to be employed. Think what your duties are and what you may do to improve your ability to perform them. Imagine yourself becoming more and more capable. Imagine what you will then say to secure the desired promotion and salary. Imagine the process of saving a portion of that salary for an automobile. You will then be directing your imagination as you should.

It is not improper for a poor person to imagine himself riding in an automobile. The fault of the whole matter comes when such a person imagines himself riding in an automobile without imagining the rest of the story. The remedy in this case is not to curtail the imagination, but to enlarge it.

Exercise Six

You live in a city. You think you would like country life and you have imagined yourself living in the country with pleasant breezes blowing, the odors of flowers around you, and neighbors cheerily calling upon you on Sunday afternoons. You picture yourself throwing grain to the chickens or perhaps coming from a day's work in the field to a fine country dinner, and the whole thing makes you dissatisfied with your life in the city.

Plainly, to correct your imagination, you must do one of two things. You must either go to the country and find the dreams you had of it are true, or by turning your imagination upon the unpleasant features of country life, make yourself satisfied with what you have.

To correct your imagination and make yourself happy, spend fifteen minutes thinking of the hardships of country life and the pleasantness of your present situation. If you live in the country and expect to continue there, reverse the process and dwell in your imagination upon the pleasures of country life and the poverty, crime, and hardship of the city.

Exercise Seven

You are addicted to the liquor habit. Your imagination pictures the pleasure of taking one drink and then another until

you are joyous and happy. Eliminate this thought from your mind when it occurs and center it upon the evils of intoxication. You must counteract the evil by thinking of the disagreeable and debilitating features that accompany it.

Exercise Eight

You are an employe in a large concern. You imagine yourself the manager. You delight in thinking of the salary and of the position of authority, but you make no progress where you are located.

To correct this, first imagine the precise steps you must take to become manager, the precise duties you will perform, and the exact things you will say and do while performing these duties. Do not rob yourself of the vision of becoming manager, but add to that fancy of the imagination the practical imagination of the other half of the story.

Exercise Nine

You are a salesman. You imagine yourself making a large number of profitable sales and becoming a leader among the salesmen. But meantime you are making no more sales, or very few more, than you did before this imagination came to you because you are not directing it properly.

To correct this, imagine yourself selling goods to one of your customers with whom you have not yet succeeded in doing very much business. Imagine the precise words you will use in speaking to him, the precise manner in which you will speak those words, and the precise method in which you will exhibit your goods and state your proposition. Imagine what he will say in opposition and how you will encounter that opposition.

Exercise Ten

You are afraid of robbers in the dark. You imagine they will injure you.

Such an imagination should be expelled from the mind. Keep your mind occupied by totally different subjects. If you cannot

expel the idea, however, you can modify the fear element, and gradually eliminate it, by imagining yourself holding a witty conversation with the robber, or successfully fighting him, and coming out of the adventure uninjured. In this, as in all other cases, remember the rule to think of yourself as *successful* in all the enterprises and adventures of imagination.

Exercise for Lesson 31

Write not over two hundred words telling the line of business you expect to enter, the position you wish to occupy, and the duties you expect to perform.

LESSON 32

THE POWER OF SUGGESTION

We have seen how it is that the mind must get its primary, or direct-contact, knowledge through sight, touch, taste, smell, or hearing.

It is also apparent that whatever sensation is received by any buyer must be received, not through the salesman's eye, fingers, palate, nose, or ear, but through his own.

This statement seems too obvious and simple to be necessary; but its consequences are tremendous. Let us follow them for a few paragraphs.

First, it must appear that, as the buyer's mind receives only its own sensations, the salesman must create certain conditions that will bring the desired sensations into the buyer's mind.

Second, the action of all minds is voluntary. You cannot force the mind of another to act as you desire.

Third, it therefore follows that your strongest weapon in convincing any person is to give to him the suggestion that will most naturally and surely cause him to build in his mind the thought you desire him to have.

For illustration: You are selling a suit of clothes in a retail store. If the buyer has implicit confidence in your judgment, you may be able to sell the suit simply by telling him it becomes him. But suppose he will not take your word for it. Remember

1. His mind receives only its own sensations.
2. His mind must act voluntarily.
3. You must give him a suggestion in the most natural and certain way.

The answer is—a mirror! And it must be a good mirror, of splendid quality, that will give him a view of his figure at all angles!

Suppose, however, he thinks it becoming, but not stylish. As before, if he trusts you completely he will take your word for it. Otherwise you must show him the fashion plate, or the living model, or the reference to some fashionable wearer of the same style. And in this case, since you desire him to "see it for himself," show the fashion plate or living model *before* he has conceived a prejudice against the suit, not after.

It was said of Socrates that he seldom made a direct affirmation until he had asked questions sufficient to induce his student or listener to say it first.

Suggestion may be exercised

1. By speech { A. Direct suggestion / B. Inference }
2. By gesture
3. By bringing the buyer into physical contact with something that will arouse the desired thought in his mind

Its influence on the mind of the buyer may be inferred by the extensive use that has been made of it in the spiritual reformation of men for hundreds of years and in the physical cure of ailments in the last generation.

Dr. Thomas J. Hudson was the first great apostle of this theory in the United States.

His *Law of Psychic Phenomena,* published in 1893, contains innumerable instances of the cure of physical maladies by "mental therapeutics," or curing by suggestion.

These illustrations comprise cases varying in importance from the cure of a pain by the suggestion "It does not hurt you" to the curing of insanity.

Every student of psychology should read this book.

Applied to salesmanship, suggestion is a most important factor.

"Jones made $2,000.00 on my line last year," is a direct suggestion to your buyer that he can do the same.

"I saw Jones in his auto this morning riding like the wind," is an inference to the buyer who knows Jones handles your line, because automobile suggests prosperity, prosperity suggests Jones' good judgment, and Jones handles your line.

To properly understand the rule of suggestion that applies here, you should understand the scientific basis of what is known as a train of thought.

Study your mind's action some time when you think what you suppose is a new thought. You will find it was directly connected with a previous thought. Perhaps someone said "Smith's Bookstore." You thought about as follows: "book, shorthand, teacher, teacher's engagement," and you said, "Have you heard that Miss Jenkins is going to be married next summer?"

That was a train of thought.

You may suppose your thought of the approaching marriage had no reference to anything said previously, but whether you could analyze it or not, it probably had a connection with some entirely foreign thing that you either heard, saw, touched, smelled, or tasted at the beginning of the train of thought.

Expressive gestures have a peculiar power in suggestion. Watch the orator spread his hands palm forward in an appeal to the audience to trust his candor. See him hold his hands palm down in font of him or lift his arms high to quiet them. See him point fiercely to denounce. Or see him leave the words of a

sentence unfinished, while he completes his thought by a gesture. The gesture is an economizer of speech.

These methods are valuable, because they make the hearer *think of the idea himself,* and thus, as its parent, adopt it more readily as his own.

To bring the hearer or buyer into contact with something that will arouse the desired thought in his mind without a direct statement on the salesman's part is the height of skill in suggestion.

For instance, a system salesman, with a proposition for retail merchants, received a bill from his grocer that contained three errors totalling $2.85 in loss to the grocer. He called attention to the errors, paid his bill, and asked, "Do your good customers usually call your attention to mistakes?"

Quick as a flash the grocer replied, "Not when they are in their favor. But when they are in my favor, they get mad."

This was just what the salesman wanted. He had made the grocer *say the thing himself,* and in half an hour he had sold the grocer a billing system.

"What is the most powerful suggestion you make in selling tuition?" was asked of a leading business college man.

"Our list of graduates," he replied. "I show it to every prospective student to find out if he knows any of them. Two times out of three he doesn't. But he has seen the list and the salary each one is now earning!"

"To get them to act immediately, what do you do?"

"I suggest the names of one or more who are to enter the following Monday."

This is one of the most powerful influences in life—the controlling factor in such movements as a "Billy Sunday" revival. "Everybody's doing it," is an all-powerful suggestion. People are gregarious. They don't want to go alone, even to Heaven.

All persons are influenced by suggestion. If one kind of suggestion fails, another must be ready. A skilled encyclopedia salesman once approached a leading business man with the customary suggestions that the mayor of the city, the city librarian, etc., had all signed his order book. "You can't get me that way,"

said the buyer. "I am not a leading citizen and I can't be influenced by such lists." The salesman laughed a ringing, hearty laugh. "You know, that's refreshing!" he exclaimed. "From morning until night I have to deal with men who won't decide a question until they find out who else has decided in favor of it. I like a chance now and then to try to sell my books on their merits to a man who isn't influenced by the flattery of being called a 'leading citizen'; because it puts me strictly up to the merit of the books themselves."

The business man bought; and he never knew that the thing that accomplished the sale was a suggestion as to his sound judgment that was the rankest kind of that flattery he thought he despised.

Auto-suggestion

The most valuable suggestion is suggestion to one's self, or auto suggestion.

We all realize the power of auto suggestion for evil. We know how a man can "think" himself into a sickness or a panic, but we don't fully realize that a man can conquer ill-health and fear to a certain large extent (some say entirely) by thought.

When a man loses confidence and faith in himself, his cause is lost—until he regains them.

He regains them by the same method that he lost them.

He lost them by bad habits, negative thoughts, harmful exercises. He regains them by good habits, affirmative thoughts, helpful exercises.

He lost them through willing wrong. He regains them by willing right.

He lost them through study of evil. He regains them through study of good.

Auto-suggestion may be exercised

1. By inward speech.
2. By gesture or motion.
3. By bringing yourself into physical contact with something that will arouse the desired thought.

Say to yourself, "I am feeling better," "I will succeed," "I love my work."

Make facial and bodily gestures that will react upon you favorably. Smile. Laugh. Make your eyes shine. Turn up the corners of your mouth. Point your finger upward. Flex your muscles. Wash and dress up!

Then, if stronger medicine is needed, take yourself to where you will be cheered and inspired. If you are blue, hunt up the right person to cheer you. Go look at the right object. Perhaps it is a building or a flower, or a mountain, or a farm. Perhaps it is a piece of work you have done well. Perhaps it is a Bible, or an essay. Perhaps it is a piece of machinery built by a skilled mechanic, or a furnace, or a pointed speech. *You* know what it is in your case. It will suggest courage and hope and service to you; and it will make you anew.

Exercise for Lesson 32

Write answers to the following in complete sentences:

What is suggestion? Why is it often important to suggest rather than to argue? Give an illustration of this, an original one, if possible. What is auto-suggestion?

PART V

THE PROCESS OF THE SALE

LESSON 33

PREPARATION AND AUDIENCE

At this point it is advisable to pause long enough to get a general view of the subject as far as we have gone.

The course began with a consideration of the structure of the mind. It then presented the customer, the thing sold, and the salesman as the three factors of a sale, analyzing each one.

Your attention in Part IV was directed to the salesman himself. After the analysis of what constitutes a good salesman, you were given for study eighteen elements of character and business efficiency.

Then Part IV concluded with a considerably deeper investigation of certain functions of the mind, including habit, will, memory, imagination, and suggestion.

In short, we have not only learned to analyze the factors of the sale, which may be likened to the flesh, blood, and bones of the body, but we have also learned something about psychological elements in selling that will if properly applied enable a good salesman to make a sale through the influence of his mind upon his customer's mind, while another salesman who may understand his goods and proposition just as well and be just as familiar with the three factors of the sale in a technical way, is unable to accomplish anything at all. This may be compared to the breath of life of a sale. We have studied the sale and under-

stand its parts and qualities, and we are now ready to study the process itself.

In Part V we are to apply our knowledge to a study of the process of a sale.

There are five divisions of the process of a sale, one topic to be considered before the sale, and one after it, making seven in all. These divisions or steps, which will be discussed in their order, are as follows:

CHART ELEVEN

THE SALE
- PRELIMINARY
  1. Preparation, before the sale
- PROCESS (during the sale)
  2. Audience
  3. Attention
  4. Interest
  5. Desire
  6. Action
- SUPPLEMENTARY
  7. Service, after the sale

Preparation

The entire book up to this point has been devoted to the study of how to prepare along general lines.

Besides this general preparation, however, there is a special preparation that should be made for every sale that is attempted.

This preparation will range in importance and time required from the preparation of a huge prospectus involving thousands of figures and results which a promoter might occupy an entire year in preparing, to the thirty seconds of preparation that a peddler makes as he casts his eyes over the next house, observes its indications, and arranges to make his talk accordingly.

Deep preparatory thought must be given in advance to a sale in proportion to its importance.

The length of time can hardly ever be in proportion to its importance, and fortunately it is not necessary that it should be so, but the force of concentration required must be in proportion to the importance of the sale or big sales will not be made. Let

us establish this then as a fixed rule: No sale should be attempted without thorough preparation for the particular event.

The salesman who wins is the salesman who goes in to win, and no man can go in to win if he does not prepare in advance to win.

Getting an Audience

Getting an audience with the buyer is an entirely separate art from that of gaining his attention.

There are many methods of getting an audience.

The first, and one of the best, is by appointment. If you are able to make a definite appointment with your man by phone, by letter, or by personal request, for a hearing at some future hour of his own selection, you have won an important victory. Follow it up effectively by promptness in keeping the appointment yourself.

Some lines of selling are especially well adapted to this method of gaining an audience, and in certain cases the willingness of the buyer to see your line makes even this unnecessary.

But when the buyer is not predisposed in your favor, the task of gaining an audience is not always a simple one.

There are salesmen who get an audience by trickery, and it is only common sense to say that in the vast majority of cases this is not good salesmanship. When a buyer is too courteous to throw a salesman out for pretending, for instance, to have an errand that is strictly personal in its nature when he has not, he will not listen to the proposition with patience when he learns what it is. He has an instinctive feeling that the man who would deceive him to gain an audience would also deceive him to sell goods.

There are cases, however, in which the salesman may properly use unique methods to gain a hearing.

For instance, a clothing salesman who had been unable to show his line to either one of the two leading dealers in a certain town, on previous visits, took the pains to hunt up a retail buyer who lived in the town, and was a personal friend of the sales-

man. This man consented to go to one of the local dealers with him and make a selection. Entering the store, the salesman introduced his friend to the proprietor and asked that he be allowed to show a few suits to the customer and make delivery of one of them through the store. The proprietor consented, of course, became interested in the line, and gave a small order for the same suit in full sizes. Through this same friend several suits were sold to others, and the salesman never after that had any difficulty in gaining an audience with this particular proprietor.

A favorite method with some of the large typewriter companies is to engage the services of one of the world's most expert typewriter operators (and these are usually boys and girls from seventeen to twenty-five years of age) and take this operator right into the office of the prospective buyer to give a brief exhibition of expert work. The unusual nature of the promised exhibition is a big factor in gaining an audience, not only from the proprietor, but from several of his assistants.

An effective means for gaining an audience is sometimes used by young salesmen representing a concern whose president or general manager is a man of high standing in the community. The president writes a form letter introducing the salesman, signed by himself. This is presented to the prospective buyer, and is nearly always the means of securing active interest at once, especially when the buyer is personally acquainted with the president of the selling firm.

The inquiry, "Is the proprietor in?" is always a poor way to gain an audience. The salesman should find out the name of the proprietor or manager beforehand, and use it.

CHART TWELVE

GAINING AN AUDIENCE
- PERSUADING BUYER TO SEE YOU
- PERSUADING CLERK TO LET YOU SEE BUYER
- ARRANGING TIME TO SUIT BUYER'S CONVENIENCE

We will study the three problems above separately.

1. Persuading the buyer to see you.

If the buyer is busy, it may be necessary for you to tell him definitely how much of his time you want. If you do so, you must be sure that your statement is truthful, and you must not overstep the bounds of your promise.

It would be well for you to show by your attitude that you are a very busy man yourself. This will indicate to him that you consider your time valuable as well as his and are not disposed to waste any of it.

It may be necessary for you to devise some plan to compel the attention of the customer who thinks he is busy or who really is busy, but ought to take time to see your line. This is not always possible, but sometimes it is necessary because of the fact that some customers like to assume the attitude of never having time to spend with salesmen.

In any of the above cases it is well for the salesman to be thoroughly grounded in the fundamental proposition laid down in the first lesson of this course, that a fair bargain benefits both parties. Believe this about your proposition, and you will not feel that you are imposing upon a customer when you ask him to take time to look at your line. The salesman should be courteous and obliging at all times, but he should never forget that the benefits of whatever transaction may be entered into are mutual, and that he is not asking a buyer to waste time.

Sometimes a deeper difficulty enters into the question of gaining an audience. Perhaps your firm has offended this customer on a previous occasion. There are many things that must be borne in mind if this is the case. If the previous salesman gave offense without cause, he should, of course, be apologized for. If the offense arose through a mistake in the shipping or billing department, your house should take steps to remedy the condition that made the offense possible, and this should be explained to the customer. If the grievance is more serious, such as the customer's discovery that others have been sold goods cheaper than you sold them to him, the customer must be told the exact facts in the case, which of course should justify your house.

If you know in advance that the customer has a complaint, it is perhaps well to settle the complaint without any reference to a prospective sale, in order to convince the customer that you consider the matter a very serious one. A representative of the Standard Oil Company says that if he has five prospective customers on a road twenty-five miles long, and one complaining customer at the end of that road, his instructions from his company are to go and settle the complaint first, even though he has to pass every one of those five customers on the road.

There is no question about the wisdom of this policy for a house that intends to do a steady and increasing business. The customer must be shown absolutely that you are anxious first to clear up the difficulty and that without reference to a new order.

2. Persuading an office helper or other employee to let you see the buyer.

Sometimes this is one of the salesman's most serious obstacles. Of course the salesman who is known and whose line is wanted in a store will always find the buyer ready to see him, but often, especially when the salesman is selling a specialty or some office device or convenience, he is met at the door by a very resolute person who informs him that the manager is not able to see him at all.

Sometimes it is necessary for the salesman to explain his proposition in detail to the subordinate and convince the subordinate that it is something that ought to be called to the manager's attention.

Sometimes it is necessary for him to refrain from telling this person his business in order that the prospect of seeing the buyer will not be injured.

Sometimes it is necessary for him to call up the buyer by 'phone in order to get past this obstacle. There are many amusing stories told by salesmen who have been confronted with this difficulty and have solved it in an interesting way. One of the brightest salesmen in business one day sent in his card to an old fellow named Guffey at a time when the old man's usual gruff

disposition had been irritated until he was ready to break a blood-vessel. There was a glass door between them, and when the salesman's card was handed to Guffey, the gruff old man tore it up and threw it into the waste-basket. The salesman saw this through the glass door.

When the ordinary salesman sees a thing like that, you don't have to break his ribs with a club to get him out of the building.

But this man was different. His brain was as quick as a self-loading repeater. He said to the boy, "Tell Mr. Guffey I'm sorry he can't see me, but ask him to return my card, as I have run short."

Mr. Guffey granted the interview.

As a rule, this salesman paid little attention to the boys who wanted his card, if he could get past them by hook or crook. "If there's no one talking to him," he would say, "I'll go right in," and in he would go.

A canvasser once secured a splendid position as a result of some clever work he did. The man he wanted to sell to said, "I'm in too much of a hurry to see you today. My time is worth five dollars a minute."

"I'll take a minute's worth," replied the salesman, and laid a $5.00 bill on the man's desk. He talked one minute, and then said, "Mr. Ames, I am not through. I'll take another minute, and that will cost *you* five dollars." He put the bill into his pocket, talked another minute, and has been working ever since for the man to whom he was selling, who admired his cleverness.

3. Arranging your time to suit the buyer's convenience.

This is not always an easy task. Sometimes the buyer really has no excuse for not seeing you, and does not want to see you at all. Of course, in such a case, your best plan is to get an appointment with him if you can; if you are unable to do so, proceed to take a few minutes of his time right then and there if you can do so by any means.

Often, however, the buyer is serious in his statement that he must see you at another time. In such a case as this, you will do

wisely to let him select the time, placing yourself at his service in the matter.

Be prompt in keeping appointments.

There is nothing that can injure you much more at the very start of your sale than tardiness. The customer feels that he has granted you a great favor in stating an exact time when he will be willing to see you. It is eminently fitting, therefore, that you do not waste any of his time—not one minute of it. It is said that Marshall Field made it a condition of his becoming a director of any corporation that all meetings were to begin on time. Nothing irritates a prompt, exact, business-like man much more than to be compelled to wait.

Gaining an Audience through Appealing to the Five Senses

In getting an audience, appeal to the sense of sight by making the buyer realize by looking at you that you mean business, and that you have something that will be of value to him. The same object is served if you make your appeal by showing him one or two selected samples.

The same impression must be conveyed to him through the sense of hearing. A busy man is not likely to be interested in a salesman with a drawl, nor is an irascible man likely to be pleased with a display of irascibility exhibited in the salesman's voice.

Whether the sense of touch, taste, or smell can be appealed to at this time depends upon what is being sold. There are very few times when the appeal to these senses would actually be of assistance in gaining an audience, though of course a salesman of perfumery might secure an audience by attracting attention to the odor of his product, and so on.

Exercise for Lesson 33

Write fifty words asking a buyer to come to your display room at a hotel, at any hour he chooses, to see your line.

CHART THIRTEEN

SECURING ATTENTION

1. By waiting
2. By interesting point of description
3. By quiet remonstrance
4. By getting buyer to your sample-room
5. By favorable first impressions
6. By impressing buyer with advantages you offer—not appealing to charity

LESSON 34

SECURING THE ATTENTION

When you have an audience with the buyer, you have just surmounted your first obstacle. Now for his attention.

"Attention," the psychologists tell us, "is the application of mind to a given object of sense to the exclusion of other objects within the range of the senses."

This is simple. We all knew this before, but perhaps we have never studied it in all its details. Let us see.

First, the salesman must see to it that nothing about his person detracts from his proposition, either by arousing admiration or disgust.

Second, the salesman must see that the buyer has nothing else upon his mind that is eating into his attention. If the buyer is stopping every two minutes to give an order to a helper, or answer the telephone, see if a little patient waiting will gain you the desired chance at his undivided attention. In extreme cases, suggest another appointment, after the busy hour, or, if possible, at your hotel.

But in any case never forget that having gained an audience, you are entitled to attention; and do not for a moment assume that your errand has lost any of its importance. You can hold this position valiantly if you are well grounded in Fundamental Number One and thus have faith that your proposition is of benefit to the buyer as well as yourself.

Third, having rid yourself of the outside or negative influence as much as possible, attract the buyer's attention by the positive force of your own conviction and descriptive power.

The best way to prevent a buyer from undue interest in any outside matter is to rivet his attention upon what you have to say and to show—and here your enthusiasm and vigor will work wonders. Your knowledge of your line is extremely useful here; and you must be careful not to lose attention through awkward fumbling to find samples that should be at your fingers' ends.

Nothing will make you lose the buyer's attention so quickly as your own delay in thinking of what to say or in finding the sample you desire to exhibit.

Fourth, be sure to use first the sort of statement or argument that you know will attract attention at once. This varies with different lines of business and with different customers. Ordinarily, in selling first-class goods especially, the question of price must not be touched upon until other facts about your goods have been well established. Sometimes, however, price is the very first thing that should be mentioned; this is usually true when you know that the buyer is paying more than your price for the same article that you are selling, and must have the article.

But whatever the first fact is that you present, it must be something certain to attract the favorable attention. Usually it refers definitely to some feature of what you are selling, but it may refer to something else.

For instance, suppose you are selling silks and have seen an advertisement of the buyer's store in a morning paper, referring to certain lines such as you have for sale. Your mention of this advertisement, if it contains some favorite idea of the buyer regarding silks, may be the very best thing in the world to attract his attention to you, because it flatters him to know that he has already attracted yours.

I know a salesman who says that one of his best customers was secured by this means. His explanation of the reason was very simple and very scientific. He said:

"The secret of selling goods is to make the buyer want them.

"The easiest way to make a buyer want what you have is to get him to express, before seeing your line, an opinion that is favorable to what you have to sell.

"This man's advertisement expressed an opinion favorable to a certain kind of goods.

"I agreed with him and the implied compliment put him on my side of the fence before I began to show my goods. The rest followed without effort."

You must secure the buyer's *positive* attention. You must not allow your words to go "into one of his ears and out of the other." You must learn how to make them stick in his mind. It is important here that you describe clearly and correctly the article which you have spent so much time in studying. It is also important that you look carefully to the exercise of your ability to use your voice and your powers of observation effectively. But you have a much more difficult and important problem at this time than you have yet faced. If your customer is not giving you his attention, you must compel him to do so. This may be done in many ways.

1. By waiting until anything else he is thinking of is off his mind.

2. By saying something so attractive about your goods or talking in such an interesting way that he is obliged to give heed to what you are saying.

3. By calling his attention to the fact that he is not listening carefully to what you have to say and insisting that he do so in his own interest.

4. By managing to get him entirely away from his present surroundings so that you can have his undivided attention.

Of course, you have to study your man carefully to know which one of these plans to adopt, but you may be assured that you will fail if you do not vigorously demand and secure his attention by some one of the above or other means.

It ought to be almost unnecessary to say that only the vigorous, enthusiastic man who loves his goods and believes in his

proposition will ever secure the undivided, enthusiastic attention of a customer. Usually a failure to secure the attention of your customer after you have secured an audience with him, is a most decided evidence of weakness on your part; but it is a weakness that can readily be conquered.

If a man has given you audience with him, you have a right to assume that you are entitled to his attention.

You must have this attention. Of course, the way to get it is to make your statement of the case so fascinating, or your personality so attractive, that the buyer will be induced to give you the whole focus of his mind.

We learn from a study of psychology that the immediate effects of attention are to make us:

a. Perceive
b. Conceive
c. Distinguish
d. Remember

Your hearer must not only see that you are present and talking. He must give you an especial notice that is more than permission to let you stand in his presence and talk. As when a public man, shaking hands with a thousand admirers, is compelled to distinguish one of them from the crowd, by something that one says or does or by something in his appearance or manner, so you as a salesman must awaken in the buyer that same sense of your personality. You must fasten yourself upon him so that he will not only heed, but remember.

"The connection between attention and memory," says Dugald Stewart, "has been remarked by many authors." Say something that will secure attention and you will be remembered. Talk idly and in a purposeless way and you will be forgotten.

First Impressions

The first impression that the buyer gains of the salesman is frequently lasting.

The reason for this is hard for a poor salesman to understand, because he does not understand the deep principle of psychology that makes the first impression important.

"Before a man acts on any subject, a decision is made in his mind," says a prominent writer on psychology. Applied to this lesson, this means that the sale takes place in the mind of the buyer before it is made.

It follows that anything that can influence the mind of the buyer before the sale is made, is valuable. It does not make any difference whether this influence is logically connected with the goods or not. Every influence that is favorable helps the sale.

If men were absolutely logical, they would say, "I do not care whether this salesman is white or black. I do not care whether he is dirty or clean. It makes no difference to me whether his breath is foul or not. I am not concerned as to whether his clothes are tailor-made or shoddy. I do not care whether his voice is harsh or pleasant; nor shall I consider whether his manner is courteous or offensive. I shall buy of him because I believe his proposition is a good one."

But men are not built on this plan—not once in a dozen times. The sale takes place first in the mind. If the mind has been unfavorably influenced by any first impression, the sale is made difficult in the mind. This is evidence that the buyer is illogical, as remarked above; but there is one very strong, practical point connected with it; that is, that buyers have learned that good reliable houses ordinarily put out salesmen whose personal habits are not objectionable. With an objectionable salesman, the inference must be that the house is objectionable.

The salesman's entire problem, after he has succeeded in getting the attention of the buyer, is to create such a favorable series of impressions in the buyer's mind that the goods will sell themselves. It should make no difference to the salesman whether or not the impression created is logically connected with the goods under discussion. His business is to create the impressions that influence the trade. Sometimes these impressions have nothing whatever to do with the goods for sale. It is not for the

salesman to dispute this fact, but to recognize it, and so conduct himself that these outside impressions will always be favorable.

How to create favorable first impressions in the mind of the customer is an important question.

One of the most important points to be considered in this connection is that it is immensely to the salesman's advantage to get the buyer influenced in favor of his article at an early stage. The salesman must therefore avoid anything that would arouse criticism of his goods or antagonism toward himself or his house. He should try to win, not by compelling the purchaser to buy of him through argument alone, because if the buyer has begun to object and criticise, he will proceed to do everything he can to uphold his position. But if the salesman has been clever enough to get the buyer's affirmative interest in the article, even before he shows it to him, his sale is almost made. For instance, the wise salesman finds out something the buyer wants that his house carries, and then interests his customer by describing this article to him before showing it. The buyer comments "That's good." The foolish salesman hears the customer say, "I ordered so and so last week," and makes this an opportunity to start an argument on "so and so" even before showing his line. The first salesman has enlisted a friend; the second salesman has made an enemy. All this has been done before the customer has had a single look at the goods.

The wise salesman will remember that the sale is made in the mind before it is made in fact, and it is his duty to make the first impression upon the mind of the buyer so favorable that the buyer will regard him constantly as a friend, and not as an enemy.

Every man likes to say "I told you so." The salesman's business should be to get the buyer in such a frame of mind that when he sees the goods he will say, "Yes, these are goods I have wanted all the time." The way to get him to do this through first impressions is to induce him, even before he has seen your goods, to express an opinion favorable to *some one thing* that you are about to show him.

The tremendous success of mail-order advertising proves the truth of this point and proves it absolutely. The mail-order advertiser sells on the basis of impressions made on the mind of the purchaser before he has seen the goods. The advertisement says in effect: "This is just the thing you are looking for. You really want this, and you may examine it and return it at our expense if you do not like it." The customer thinks this is perfectly fair, and orders the article on approval. In doing this, he has gone to some trouble, and in examining the article, he goes to more trouble, but he has said to himself, "I want this article if it is what I hope it is," and he will put himself really on the side of the article in the argument to convince himself that it is just what he wants after he has gone to this trouble, whereas a salesman who has the article and shows it in person, untactfully, may get this same purchaser's fighting blood up by insisting upon the importance of some detail that the customer does not approve of, and lose the sale.

The real milk of the cocoanut on the point of first impressions is that the salesman must always make the buyer think something like the following:

"These goods must be all right, because the salesman looks prosperous, clean, and honest."

"These goods must be all right, because the salesman has asked me what I want, and tells me he has exactly that thing."

In short, the duty of the salesman should be to get the customer in a frame of mind in which he expects to be satisfied, and not in the frame of mind in which he desires to criticise and find fault in order to support his previous opinion. The salesman must make the customer his friend and a friend of his goods, by creating favorable first impressions, and avoid anything and everything in the nature of a controversy, unless he is simply forced to fight.

Don't disparage the buyer's stock or town. It is in the nature of every man to stand up for what is his when another attacks it, even though he may reserve the right to abuse it himself. It has been well said on this subject:

"In its wisest possible sense a man's self is the sum total of all that he can call his; not only his body and his psychic powers, but his clothes and his house, his wife and children, his ancestors and friends, his reputation and works, his lands and horses, and yacht, and bank account. All these things give him the same emotions. If they wax and prosper, he feels triumphant; if they dwindle and die away, he feels cast down."

Let the customer feel from the first moment of your conversation that you consider him a person of taste and judgment.

"He who imagines commendation and disgrace not to be strong motives in men," says Locke in his famous Treatise on the Human Understanding,* "seems little skilled in the nature and history of mankind; the greatest part whereof he shall find to govern themselves chiefly, if not solely, by this law of fashion, and so they do that which keeps them in reputation with their company, with little regard for the laws of God or the magistrate."

Salesmen Not Objects of Charity

It is obvious that a buyer purchases for only one reason, and that is because he thinks the purchase will be of benefit to him.

It is equally obvious that the salesman who tries to induce the customer to buy because the salesman needs the money will usually fail to get his attention. The buyer will at once argue that if the salesman needs the money, it must be because he is not making money. If he is not making money, this must be because his goods are not selling well. If his goods are not selling well, this must be because people do not think they are worth the money, and if people do not think they are worth the money, it is not likely that they are. The train of logic is complete.

On this subject the following paragraph is good. It is from the *Manual of Instruction* issued to its salesmen by the firm of Underwood & Underwood, New York.

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* Book 2, Chap. 28.

"Occasionally some one may suggest that he or she would like to patronize you 'to help you along,' or will offer you an order 'just to encourage you.' Resent any remark of this sort, but do so in a nice way. Simply reply, 'I beg of you don't think of that, for I am doing a good business and making money. Nearly everybody buys *these* goods. They really have wonderful merit. Now, I want to take your order strictly on the merits of the goods, and the longer you have them the better you will like them, for they are exceedingly fine,' etc. Be independent in this way, and you will feel better. Besides, *you will sell more goods.* When people buy because they recognize the merit of the goods and want them, they always spend more money than when they 'take a few to help you,' in a spirit of doing missionary work. Josh Billings says, 'The cent pieces wuz made on purpose for charity.' "

Student's Exercise for Lesson 34

Write a fifty-word reply to the person who says: "I should like to buy to help you out, but I don't believe I will today."

Read carefully the following chart before studying the next lesson.

CHART FOURTEEN

AWAKENING INTEREST AND DESIRE	1.	BE CERTAIN YOUR CUSTOMER SHOULD BE INTERESTED
	2.	FIND OUT WHAT FEATURES ARE LIKELY TO APPEAL TO HIM
	3.	DESCRIBE ARTICLE ATTRACTIVELY
	4.	BE SURE YOU HAVE NO OBJECTIONABLE CHARACTERISTICS
	5.	ASCERTAIN YOUR FAULTS AS SALESMAN AND AMEND THEM

LESSON 35

AWAKENING OR DISCOVERING INTEREST

You have gained an audience with your customer, and his attention. You must now secure his interest in your goods.

His interest is usually lacking for one of two reasons—either you have not secured his attention or your argument or selling talk proves a failure. If you believe you have not secured his attention, you must secure it as suggested in the preceding lesson, but for the purposes of this lesson, we must assume that you have secured his attention.

If you believe your argument or selling talk is failing to arouse interest, you must investigate the cause. This will be found to be one of the following:

1. Your proposition actually has no interest for the customer and for good reasons can have none. If this is the case, the sooner you find it out, the better for you both. A salesman, however, should be very careful about giving up on this supposition. There is a constant temptation to believe it is impossible to interest a customer, when as a matter of fact the whole fault lies with the salesman.

2. You are not understanding your customer and are not grasping the things that will be sure to interest him.

3. You are not describing your article in an attractive, intelligent way.

4. There is something objectionable about you as a salesman.

In short, you will plainly see that unless the fault is of the first class mentioned, it lies in your failure to understand and make the most of either one of the three factors of the sale; the article, the customer, or the salesman.

How shall the salesman tell? Let us look into this matter.

It is very natural, when the salesman is putting up the best talk he knows how, and knows that his goods are right, that he should believe that the fault lies with the buyer.

The fault is rarely with the buyer.

While it may be true that certain obstinate or ignorant buyers will hurt their own interests rather than purchase from a certain salesman, the reason for this is always to be found in some matter connected either with the salesman or his goods in a direct or indirect way. If the customer, for instance, is an old fogy, and will not buy a certain new style of goods, it may seem that it is the prejudice of the customer that makes the sale impossible; but the thing that really makes the sale impossible is that the salesman does not know how to overcome this prejudice.

In short, it is wrong for the salesman to blame his failure upon the buyer. He cannot properly excuse himself for the failure to make a sale by merely saying, "I could have sold it to him, if he had had any sense." The salesman must take the customer as he finds him.

If there is anything wrong with the buyer, then let the salesman find out what it is and so construct his selling talk as to obviate the difficulty. Sometimes the obstinacy of a customer stands in the way of the salesman's success to such an extent that there seems to be no other reason for failure, but usually obstinacy can be overcome by skillful salesmanship. Many men claim that they can never be moved in their opinions, but the man never lived of whom this was absolutely true.

Then let the salesman dismiss from his mind the idea of blaming his failure upon the customer. Let him study the customer carefully, just as he studies his article.

It is not amiss for the salesman's conversation, when in perplexity over this question, to be something like this:

"Mr. Jones, I see that I am not interesting you in this article as much as I should be able to. I do not blame you for it, for I realize as well as you do that you are perfectly willing to buy whatever you think will make you a profit and give satisfaction to your customers. Since the fault is not with you, it must be either with me or my goods. I am certain that it is not with the goods, and it must be, therefore, that I have failed to describe these to you in a way that will clinch the order. I feel that I

must have omitted something that is vital to your interest in this proposition, and I will greatly appreciate it if you will tell me frankly what there is about my goods that you do not understand or do not approve of."

Frequently, a talk of this kind will have the effect of drawing out of the customer the facts that you need to know in order to make your proposition interesting to him.

It is not always advisable to make such a talk. It depends upon what kind of man you are talking to. If you are talking to a nervous, irascible, impatient man, he might reply to you, "If you cannot interest me in your goods, it is simply because your goods are not interesting." In this case, such a talk has done you more harm than good, but if your man is a patient, agreeable man who is willing to discuss such matters, you can do no better than to ask him plainly what he objects to.

Of course, if he tells you before you ask him, as he will in most cases, you are spared the difficulty of determining the cause of your failure.

As a rule, however, lack of interest does not depend upon some little detail that you have omitted from the conversation, but upon some larger general condition. You have not appealed to the buyer because you have never studied his personality, or that of men like him. You have not made it a point to find out what it is that will appeal to this particular man. Study him. Make a note of the experiences with him. Be prepared to do battle with him next time and win.

In the awakening of interest, the science of logic will come into play so often that a brief suggestion of what and how important it is, should be made here.

Logic

A knowledge of the principles of logic is invaluable to the salesman.

Logic is the science or art of exact reasoning.

Space does not permit us to go deeply into a study of logic in these lessons, but it is advisable, perhaps, to tell the student

enough about it to arouse his interest in the subject and perhaps quicken his desire to study it further.

If a man is to reason, his reasoning must first be based on facts.

In order to get a comparison of facts one must know at least two facts before he can draw any conclusion of logic.

Hence we have as the simplest form of logic, two facts from which a conclusion is drawn. These two facts are known as "premises."

The order in which the two facts, or premises, and the conclusion are set down is as follows:

1. First premise
2. Second premise
3. Conclusion

As an illustration, take the following:

First premise—All men can breathe.
Second premise—Smith is a man.
Conclusion—Therefore, Smith can breathe.

The three steps taken together are called a syllogism.

Now every salesman is called upon to exercise his ability in forming conclusions, and great care must be taken to thoroughly understand the nature of the above.

The salesman must say, for instance:

First premise—All hat stores should sell fedoras.
Second premise—You own a hat store.
Conclusion—Therefore, your store should sell fedoras.

The salesman should guard against the most common errors in logic, which are to draw conclusions from wrong facts, and to interpret one fact or premise to mean more than it does.

For instance, take this illustration:

First premise—All men are six feet tall.
Second premise—Smith is a man.
Conclusion—Smith is six feet tall.

The first premise is wrong. Therefore the conclusion may be wrong.

Here is an illustration of the second kind of error referred to:

First premise—All men can breathe.
Second premise—A horse can breathe.
Conclusion—A horse is a man.

The first premise has been assumed to mean more than it does. It did not say that *only* men could breathe. Hence, in assuming it to mean more than it did mean, the conclusion arrived at was wrong.

These errors in logic are termed fallacies.

From the above we derive the following rules for the benefit of the salesman:

1. Learn the facts.
2. Do not assume more than the strict truth about them.
3. State your facts and conclusion together in a brief and positive way.
4. *Apply the rules of logic to every buyer of the intellectual type, not to those of the emotional type.*
5. Study logic. A splendid text is John Stuart Mill's *System of Logic.*

Exercise for Lesson 35

You are selling an encyclopedia of business facts and information. Your customer without listening to you has said "I am not at all interested." Write one hundred words stating what you would reply to him, telling him that it is your purpose to show him why he *should* be interested.

LESSON 36

AROUSING DESIRE

The connection between *interest* and the next topic, *desire,* is very close indeed, because a buyer is almost always interested in an article for the same reasons that will make him desire to buy it.

The salesman may arouse interest in a thousand things the customer may never desire to buy. It is easy, for instance, to interest a man in curiosities from foreign lands or mementoes of ancient times, which he does not care to invest in. Indeed, one's interest in an article may be antagonistic, as, for instance, the interest of a temperance agitator in whisky, beer, or perchance sweet cider, which I remember was included in all the pledges I signed at the age of six. A young woman at a medical school, who was of the extremely militant suffragette type, upon being taunted with her entire lack of interest in young men, replied that she certainly was very much interested in one of them. "Who?" asked her friends. "One in the laboratory," she answered. "We are dissecting him."

A mistake frequently made by salesmen is that of interesting buyers in certain features of their goods that do not lead to the next step—desire.

The object of interest is to lead to desire.

A young salesman for the Underwood Typewriter Co., who lost his position, was employed by the Monarch. While working in the latter position, his description of the Monarch included this sentence: "The Monarch, in appearance and construction, is nearly the same as the Underwood. One who is not an expert can't tell the difference."

The statement was interesting, but it immediately suggested "Underwood" instead of "Monarch."

The interest created did not lead to desire.

This is a common error in salesmanship. "I know," says the buyer at the conclusion of a selling talk, "all you say is very interesting, but——"

The fox with a thousand tricks of which he had been boasting to the cat, was caught by the hounds and torn into pieces. The cat had only one trick, and that was the simple trick of climbing up a tree; but that one trick saved her life.

It is the salesman's business to find, among the thousand interesting facts about his goods, which ones lead directly to desire, and use these. It is a good thing to know everything of

interest, but there are only a few items that talk in a language that can arouse a desire.

When an article is for the use of the buyer, these items must appeal to his comfort, luxury, convenience, or service, with price in the background. When it is for the buyer to re-sell, only one thing counts, and that is profit.

The creation of *desire* is dependent upon your ability to rouse the customer's imagination so that, as Atkinson expresses it, "The prospect will begin to think of the thing or proposition in connection with himself." The same rules apply to quickening the desire that applied to arousing interest, but there is one very important point that must be considered here. A man may be immensely interested in what you have to say, and may not desire the article at all. You must be sure, when you attempt to awaken desire, that the interest he has is an interest along lines that will cause him to purchase the goods, and not simply an interest in certain intellectual facts that you are presenting. For instance, it would not be much of a task for a salesman to interest any one of us in an airship, but he would have considerable difficulty in selling us one. The point is that the salesman must be very careful to arouse only that kind of interest that points directly to a sale. With this kind of interest as a foundation it takes nothing more than the mere suggestion of a purchase to arouse a man's desire, so closely does desire follow on the heels of interest.

From a psychological standpoint, the creation of desire may be accomplished in many clever ways, two of the most important of which are as follows:

1. The Reiteration of Impressions

"Constant dripping wears away the rock." Find out what it is about your goods or line that makes the strongest appeal, and keep referring to it in various ways, bringing the buyer's mind back to that point repeatedly.

The thing that will make the strongest appeal will differ not only in accordance with the nature of the buyer's personality, but

also in accordance with the nature of the thing sold. For instance, to cultivate desire for a luxury in the mind of the user, the salesman should get his attention away from money, and use every effort to make money seem less important to him than comfort.

To cultivate desire for a line of goods to be sold at a profit by a dealer, the salesman should center his attention upon money, and show him how to make big profits with his line.

2. The Grouping of Impressions

In scientific language this is known as the "summation of stimuli." Commenting upon the importance of this method of arousing desire and compelling action, Professor William James says:

"We constantly use the summation of stimuli in our practical appeals. If a car-horse balks, the final way of starting him is by applying a number of customary incitements at once. If the driver uses reins and voice, if one bystander pulls at his head, another lashes his hind quarters, and the conductor rings the bell, and the dismounted passengers shove the car, all at the same moment, his obstinacy generally yields, and he goes on his way rejoicing. If we are striving to remember a lost name or fact, we think of as many 'cues' as possible, so that by their joint action they may recall what no one of them can recall alone. The sight of a dead prey will often not stimulate a beast to pursuit, but if the sight of movement be added to that of form, pursuit occurs." "Brucke noted that his brainless hen, which made no attempt to peck at the grain under her very eyes, began pecking if the grain were thrown on the ground with force, so as to produce a rattling sound." "Dr. Allen Thomson hatched out some chickens on a carpet, where he kept them for several days. They showed no inclination to scrape, . . . but when Dr. Thomson sprinkled a little gravel on the carpet, . . . the chickens immediately began their scraping movements." "A strange person, and darkness, are both of them stimuli to fear and mistrust in dogs (and for the matter of that, in men). Neither circum-

stance alone may awaken outward manifestations, but together, *i. e.,* when the strange man is met in the dark, the dog will be excited to violent defiance. Street-hawkers well know the efficacy of summation, for they arrange themselves in a line upon the sidewalk, and the passer often buys from the last one of them, through the effect of the reiterated solicitation, what he refused to buy from the first in the row. Aphasia shows many examples of summation. A patient who cannot name an object simply shown him, will name it if he touches as well as sees it."*

For instance, it is natural for a good salesman to induce his customer to see and feel a piece of fur at the same time, but it requires deeper study to "group impressions" in complicated cases. The auto salesman who allows the buyer to handle the steering wheel and learn to run the new car, has created a new and strong appeal to the buyer's mind. An advertising salesman for a business publication gives this interesting experience: "I once had a customer whom I had been able to convince of the pulling power of our space. I showed him results, figures, affidavits of pleased advertisers. I figured out the profits that would certainly result, and he seemed to believe that what I said was true. But I could not land the order, for some reason I did not understand. One day I mentioned the case to one of our constant advertisers. 'How can I get his name on the dotted line?' I asked. 'Bring him to my office tomorrow morning,' said my friend, 'and I will let him sit down at my desk and open my incoming orders.' I did so. My man came, sat at the desk, and took the checks from fifty envelopes with his own hands. I got his signature to a contract before he got up from his seat."

The Power of Suggestion in Arousing Desire

The power of suggestion is perhaps at its height at the particular point in the sale when interest is just leading to desire.

You may force an audience upon a man, you may compel his

* Psychology—Advanced Course, pages 84-85.

attention, and your selling talk may drive him into a state of interest; but desire upon the part of the buyer must spring from within himself, and your power of suggestion is here your most valuable weapon.

An interesting story is told of how a salesman used this power skillfully.

His company installs factory and store systems of records and accounting.

The salesman had two prospects in the same town, one of whom was near the verge of bankruptcy through lack of system. The manager of this company, Mr. B., was open to conviction, installed the system, and within two years was conducting a more prosperous business than his competitor, Mr. A, who still refused to install the system. The salesman succeeded in persuading Mr. A to grant him another interview after the second year, and when he had interested him in some of the details of his plan, said, "By the way, how is Mr. B.? I saw him out in his automobile this morning and he seems to have entirely recovered his health, which used to be poor." "Oh, his health is splendid," replied Mr. A.; "he tells me it was never better."

Now the salesman's object was not to ask if Mr. B.'s health was good. He knew that already. He wanted to cast out the suggestion "automobile" because he knew it was a recent purchase made possible by the increased earnings of B.'s concern. The thing that kept running through A.'s mind was: "I wonder if the increased prosperity of Mr. B.'s business is really due to this system?" He went deep down into the merits of the proposition as he never had before, and finally decided to give it a trial. Several years later he said to the salesman: "The thing that started me to thinking seriously of your proposition was your casual reference to B.'s automobile, but I suppose you never gave that little side remark a second thought." "On the contrary," replied the salesman, "that little remark was the real point of my selling talk. I had studied it out beforehand."

The importance of making the buyer believe that a suggestion

emanated from his own mind is the fine art of skillful salesmanship; and in arousing desire it is vital to success.

The Supreme Moment

And now we come to that terrible moment that stands, Cerberus-like, across the pathway of success.

How shall the salesman nerve himself for this moment? What charms can he display, what gods invoke, to aid him in the ordeal?

At the risk of seeming to evade the subject, I dare to say that the moment of asking for the order is not the supreme moment at all. To the salesman of skill, this moment is merely an incident. It is the supreme moment, not in his art, but merely in the announcement of the result; and it is of little importance, providing his work has been well done, and the time for the question carefully selected.

Nevertheless, there are certain facts about this particular moment that must be kept in mind.

First, it must come at exactly the right time. Many salesmen urge the sale too soon, many too late; and, worse still, others leave the matter entirely in the hands of the buyer. The expert salesman so arranges his entire argument and presentation as to ward against all three difficulties. By the exercise of judgment, he selects the right time, and by the exercise of trained powers of observation he guards against any symptoms that the buyer shows of "taking the bit in his teeth."

Many a sale is lost, too, because the salesman is over-ambitious for a larger order than it would be sensible for the buyer to give.

Sometimes, also, after a buyer has become interested, the salesman spoils it all by too small a demand, like the preacher who had his audience worked up to where many would have given from one to a hundred dollars, and then said, "Now, let everyone give at least a penny—yes—remember the widow's mite—and give if it is only a penny."

But these are all small matters. There are three important things that make a final appeal effective. They are:

1. A successful foundation or preparation for it throughout the selling talk.

2. The selection of the right moment.

3. Asking for the order in an affirmative way.

Let your words and your tone imply that you expect the answer "yes."

Confidence is now your most valuable asset.

You have been working along the same lines that convince you. Now expect the buyer to be convinced. States of mind are contagious—and the germ of the contagion is the picture the salesman has presented to the imagination of the buyer.

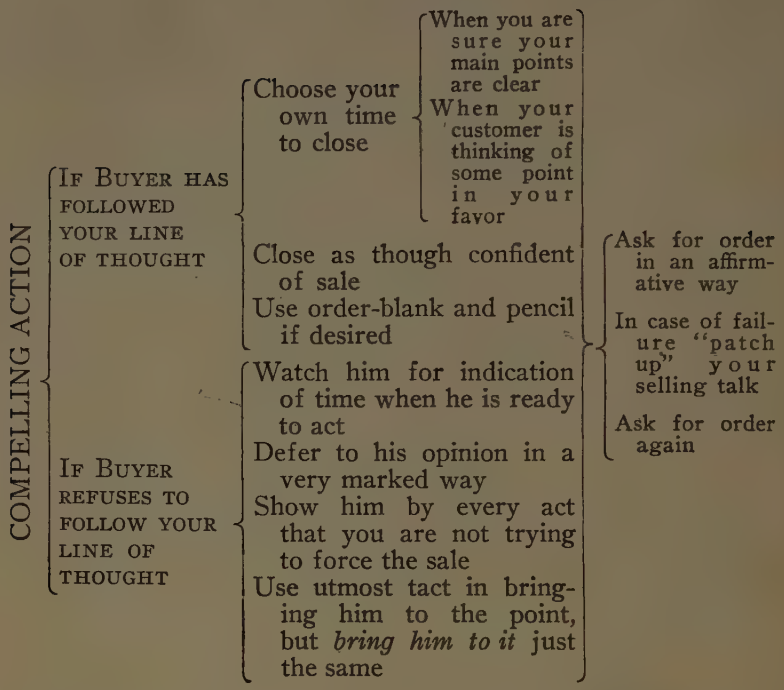
The success of the final appeal depends upon how the salesman has appealed to the imagination of the buyer during the entire process of his selling talk. These facts have been stated and restated throughout this text, particularly in Lessons 30, 31 and 32. Here you were taught specifically to apply to the practice of salesmanship those rules for the guidance of the buyer's imagination that are fundamental to success in selling. You should read and reread these three lessons at this time.

The salesman who has done too much arguing, who has talked too much about the goods of a competitor and who has suggested various possibilities of failure, has built upon a foundation that will crumble beneath him when the supreme moment comes. On the other hand, the salesman who has appealed favorably to the imagination of the buyer has all but won his case before the moment comes when the name is to be placed on the dotted line.

Exercise for Lesson 36

You are selling a Cadillac automobile. Your customer is Mr. Peck. He is interested in the machine and thinks it one of the best. You have discovered that his desire is not strong because he has not yet pictured himself as the owner of the machine. Use his name in addressing him and write about one hundred words that you would use in leading him from interest to desire.

CHART FIFTEEN



Read the above chart carefully before studying the next lesson.

LESSON 37

COMPELLING ACTION

The last step, *How to induce action on the part of the buyer,* presents the most difficult problem for the salesman, and calls for the most careful study. At first thought, the varieties of human dispositions with which the salesman deals seem to be too many and divergent to be classified. But upon reflection you will see that prospective customers can be roughly divided in

two classes in a way that will greatly help the salesman in *Closing the Sale*. They are:

1. Those who have been willing to follow the salesman's line of argument as he has laid it out.

2. Those who have insisted upon following their own lines of thought.

In selling to persons of the first class, the salesman may choose his own time and opportunity to urge the sale, and in some cases this gives him an immense advantage. His problem is simple. He knows the buyer has been following his thought and is therefore at about the same point in the argument that he is himself.

Often the buyer is persuaded to follow the salesman's line of thought simply because the salesman has talked to him so impressively and seems to be so well posted that he at once feels disposed to allow the salesman to guide the conversation and to dictate the order in which the various topics of interest are to be discussed. It follows naturally that many times the salesman can handle a customer who seems not disposed to follow the salesman's line of thought, by taking some means of convincing him that he knows what he is talking about.

The appearance, voice, and manner of the salesman afford the easiest means to convey this impression.

If they do not convey it, a reference to some fundamental proposition regarding the goods may have the desired effect.

Any remark or statement that will show the buyer that the salesman knows what he is talking about regarding his product will help his cause, providing the remark is in good taste. Boasting, however, is not likely to have the desired effect.

In dealing with persons of the second class, the salesman does not know with any certainty what line of thought the purchaser has been pursuing, and in addition to the difficulties described in the first case, he faces an added and greater difficulty, namely, that of judging what the customer is thinking about, or trying to "drive at" in his plan of investigation.

Of course the salesman has no exact method, in either case, of knowing what the buyer is thinking about to discredit the

salesman's argument, or question it after he is through; but in the first case the salesman has the decided advantage of knowing that up to a certain point, at least, the buyer has followed his line of thought.

In case you cannot get an expression from the customer which will show what he thinks of your proposition, it is usually best to proceed with your normal plan of careful, attractive description, baiting him now and then with a question such as "That is surely a winner, isn't it?" If this fails to draw him out, it may be wise to propose that he buy. In general, though, the salesman should be reasonably sure that the customer desires the article before the proposition to buy is put, for that should always be made confidently with the expectation of the customer's buying.

If the customer has allowed the salesman to carry on the selling talk in his own way, presenting the thought in the order he has planned, the salesman can press the sale at the exact point planned from the first.

If not, he has the more difficult task of watching until the customer has asked all the questions he desired or made all the statements he wished to make, before urging the sale. In this latter case, the salesman's plan should be to find out fearlessly what it is that his customer is driving at in his investigation, to satisfy him upon this point, and then to press the sale when it seems that the customer is satisfied upon the point that he has made the chief issue.

This question of when to press the sale is really one of the most important ones that the salesman must consider. Many a bargain has been ruined because the salesman displayed too keen an anxiety in pressing the sale before the customer was convinced. On the other hand, many sales have been lost because the salesman has not urged his point soon enough. There is in every sale one time when the customer is more disposed to buy than any other. A careful study of the above should show the salesman how to look for that particular time and recognize it when it appears.

In brief, it is after the salesman has described his goods and proposition thoroughly, answered all ordinary objections of the buyer and then aroused the buyer's enthusiasm by special reference or re-reference to some one point that seems to be of the most importance and of the greatest attractiveness to the buyer; and it must be before the buyer has grown "cold" on the proposition.

This does not mean that the salesman must strike while the iron is hot and then leave his customer to think out all objections afterwards, and gradually work himself up to anger when it is too late. The salesman must be careful to avoid this by thoroughly satisfying the buyer on all points before leaving him, or before taking his order, but the fact that is greatly in the salesman's favor is that usually, after a man has once concluded a transaction, he is likely to dismiss it from his mind, if it be of such nature that he can reasonably do so. The salesman who has thoroughly covered the ground, and has then made his customer enthusiastic before taking the order, is not likely to be confronted afterwards with the nightmare of dissatisfied customers who bought while under his influence and regretted it afterwards.

Here again we see the necessity for honest statements and fair argument. Such statements and arguments do not become unattractive with age. The customer thinks of them with satisfaction later.

He is dissatisfied when he realizes that the salesman has deceived him either by lying directly or by inference or by the omission of some important fact. He is then angry and has a right to be.

As to *how* to press the sale, the same classification of buyers proves valuable. Buyers of either class may prove absolutely independent in their desire to come to a decision for themselves, without undue influence, but those of the first class are likely to allow the salesman the same privilege of urging his sale at his own time as they did in allowing him to present his argument in his own fashion. Buyers of the second class are not at all likely

to do this. Having pursued their investigations in their own way, and asked questions at their own time, they are likely to demand the privilege of themselves determining when the final step in the proceedings shall be taken.

This does not mean that the salesman should permit himself, in the case of men of the second class, to be bullied or scared away from the discussion of all the important points in his proposition, nor that he should allow himself to be thwarted in his plan of urging a sale at the conclusion of his argument; but that he must, in deference to his customer's wishes, plan his argument and select his method and time of urging the sale to conform entirely to the buyer's desires, if it is possible for him to do so without loss of business.

This requirement of the salesman calls for the exercise of that all-important quality, tact. The salesman must know when to listen and when to speak; when to answer and when to ask; when to describe and when to urge.

The careful student of this course will improve the quality of his tact by study. Tact is nothing more or less than the application of common sense rules to conversation and conduct. It is that ready power of appreciation, and of doing what is required by circumstances, that can be acquired only by the careful study of circumstances and of people.

Like every other element of personality, tact is not a quality that is merely born in people. There are very few attributes of our being that yield more readily to study and cultivation than tact. Tactfulness is inspired and made possible by the deference and respect which we have for the opinions and feelings of others. How, then, is the salesman to acquire it without studying the characteristics of buyers? And how is he to avoid acquiring it if he does study the characteristics of buyers with the aim of turning these characteristics to his own profit when making the sale?

Tact is ordinarily characterized by deference to the opinions of others, but there are times when it is characterized by the exact opposite of this. There are customers, just as there are

people in all grades of life, who desire to be bullied, who will not buy unless they are bullied.

In such a case, it is an evidence of tact for the salesman to be a bully.

But this case is not found once in a thousand times. A man who is so weak by nature that he has to be literally forced into signing an order is not a man who is likely to be a buyer of anything very long. Yet such men do exist, and when the salesman finds one, it is a shame to disappoint him.

There are other times when tact compels the salesman to fight, not physically, of course, but intellectually. Suppose you are dealing with a bully, a man who proposes to browbeat you until he drives you out of his store without a sale. He abuses your house unjustly; he abuses your goods without reason.

There is only one way to answer this man, and that is to call him sharply to time.

Do not call him names or engage in any petty quarrel, but tell him vigorously and forcibly that what he has said is not true. Tell him why it is not true. Make no compromise with him—not a single inch—and nine times out of ten such a man will stop bullying you. Then you can adopt a pleasant and conciliatory attitude and be a thousand times nearer to a sale than you ever would have been had you allowed him to abuse you and your house and your goods without standing up like a man and giving him better than you received.

Student's Exercise for Lesson 37

(Fifty to seventy-five words)

Select any article you wish to sell. Write what you would say if a customer said, "I need the goods, and I believe your goods are all right, but I will think it over and let you know the next time you come around." The customer's name is Andrews. Use it in addressing him.

LESSON 38

HOW LONG TO TALK

The question of how long to talk is a very important one, for costly mistakes are made both by those who talk too long and by those who say too little. There are some articles, such as newspapers sold on the street, that do not require any more description than the name of the article and two or three words about its most striking or important features. But aside from goods of this class, it is as serious an error to attempt to make a sale without sufficient description of your article and its advantages, as it is to bore your customer with too much talk.

The following rules may be adopted to help you to judge how long to talk before asking your customer for the order.

1. Be sure your customer understands the vital points about your goods.

2. Be sure your proposition is clearly outlined in *his* mind.

3. Be sure you have given answers to his objections that are clear explanations of the points he has raised.

4. Be sure the moment selected for the urging of the sale is one in which he is giving consideration to the advantages of your proposition and not to its disadvantages.

5. Be especially careful to watch your customer closely enough to give him a chance to say he will buy, if he wants to do so. Don't "keep your order book empty with your tongue."

A wonderful opportunity is here presented for the shrewd keenness of the detective. The mind is monarch of the body, ruler of circumstances, master of results. Is there not the same joy and excitement in the ability to read the mind of a man as there is in discovering evidences of some physical deed, such as a burglary or a fraud?

To be able to describe goods with power and conviction is impossible except to the salesman who knows how to observe,

analyze, and master the situations he finds in buyers' minds; and the proper lengthening or shortening of a selling talk depends upon this ability.

On the fourth point, William Walker Atkinson says, "The strongest motive *at the moment,* wins the choice. This strongest motive may be of reason or feeling; conscious or unconscious; but strongest at that moment it must be, or it would not win."

Remember in connection with this entire matter, that it is not necessary for you to give a complete encyclopedic description of your article. You are not required to defend your goods against an objection that has never been raised, and it is very poor policy to do so. Many a sale has been lost because a salesman did not know how to let well enough alone, and made it a point to drag into his selling talk every objection to his goods he had ever heard made. It may be a pleasure to a garrulous salesman to put up a "straw-man" and then knock him down with great vigor, but it is not good sense.

This does not mean that it is ever proper to evade any honest objections that are or could be raised to your goods. These should be squarely met at all times. But do not waste time or thought-power by dragging such objections in by the heels. Remember that successful sales are made not by discussing objections, but by holding forth advantages. Never introduce an objection yourself unless you feel positive that such an objection exists in your customer's mind and he does not state it. Then you should raise it skillfully. In general, do not say, "You may think the shape of this article is a disadvantage," but rather, "You may not think its shape is any more advantageous than others," and then proceed to show that it is advantageous. Be careful not to state there is an actual objection in his mind, but that there is a possibility of his feeling that the point may not be a point of real superiority. Then proceed to show how actual use will demonstrate its tremendous advantage. Answer this point thoroughly if you bring it up, but do not assume for a moment that the customer is opposed to your argument.

The Order-blank

When order-book and pencil are necessary to the sale, the salesman has an advantage and a disadvantage that he would not have otherwise. The advantage is that he has a signature to get, a definite act to be performed, that differs in its conclusiveness from that of securing a promise in words only. Often the necessity of signing an order centers the buyer's mind on the question before him in a far more positive way than if no such order-blanks were presented for consideration. The disadvantage arises from the very same fact. Some people object to signing orders.

Usually, with a well-known proposition and a resolute customer, the order-blank expedites matters. With an unknown house or salesman, and a weak buyer, it is often an obstacle. The order-blank, however, is necessary for reasons not connected with selling, but with delivery. It prevents mistakes.

The Crucial Moment

Many a salesman conducts his sale exactly right up to the point of taking the order; but there he fails.

A few ideas regarding the closing of a sale should be enumerated here. Some of them have already been mentioned.

1. Be careful to select the right time.

2. Do not have the attitude of asking a favor, but rather of presenting an opportunity.

3. Ask for the order in an affirmative way.

4. Learn to tell the difference between an ordinary "no" and a final "no."

The third point needs special comment. It is absurd for a salesman to ask for an order in either a tone or words that indicate that he does not expect to get it. The words "I don't suppose you would want any of these today, would you?" have never yet made a sale, and it is very seldom that they have ever been used without ruining the chances for a sale. It is as though one were to say to his friend, "Well, you won't come up to dinner tonight, will you?" Such a man would be greatly sur-

prised if his friend should say, "Yes, I will." The same applies to the salesman.

We quote again from the manual of instructions issued by Underwood & Underwood of New York.

"When you ask for the order *in an affirmative way* (and the order should never be asked for in any other than an affirmative and expectant way), it is very effective to take your order book and pencil from your pocket as you say: 'What is your name?' Expect the order and you will frequently get it without delay."

This firm instructs its salesmen to say: "Well, I'll put you down for an order, shall I not?" Their salesmen are instructed throughout their entire manual to pay special attention to this one point; namely, the salesman should ask for an order as though he expected to get it. At the same time one must be careful to do or say nothing that seems too forward.

Do not forget the importance, in many kinds of selling, of using prominent names to influence others to put their names down also. In wholesale salesmanship, this would mean the names of great retail dealers using your line. In retail salesmanship and in canvassing, it would mean the names of prominent people of the city who were using or had subscribed to what you desired to sell.

"Patching Up" a Selling Talk

Suppose the salesman has finished his selling talk and has failed to take the order, and yet feels that he has not lost altogether. The question is how to "patch up" or amend his selling talk. Something has been wrong. He must decide which of the following objections has prevented him from making the sale:

1. He has not dwelt long enough on the argument that appealed most when used previously. The salesman should watch throughout his entire talk for the one thing that seems to make appeal most strongly to the buyer and use it in the crucial moment just before asking for the order.

2. Perhaps the salesman has not shown his goods right or has

not shown enough of his line. In this case, he can frequently get back to this work very gracefully and begin again.

3. Perhaps the salesman has forgotten some important point connected with the sale, as the importance of the popularity of his goods, the profit that may be made on them, or something of that kind. He should search his memory for what it is that has been forgotten and produce it.

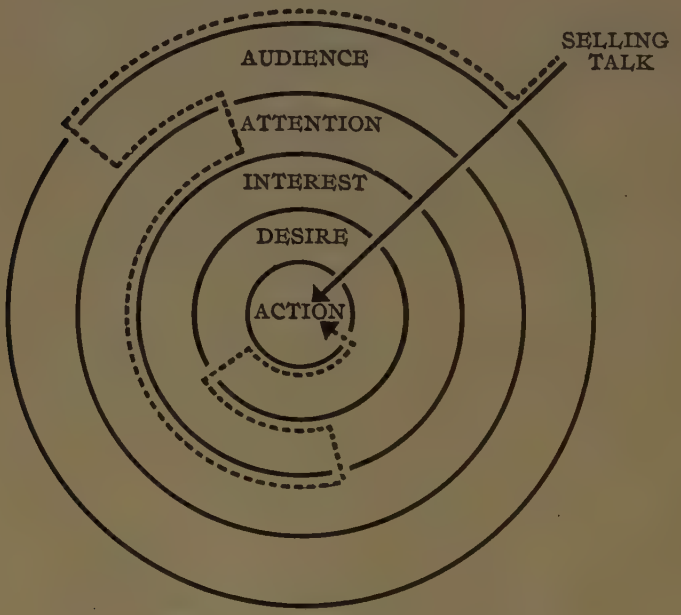


FIGURE 12. HITTING THE BULL'S EYE

The salesman who has scientifically studied his customer, his goods and himself is the one who will succeed in his sale. Sometimes he will go direct to the sale, like the straight arrow. Sometimes he will have to search for openings, like the dotted line. But he will always succeed if the proposition he makes is a good one for the buyer.

In either case he must go through each part of the process of the sale in its proper order. The old game of "Pigs in Clover" is an illustration of the process of salesmanship.

4. Perhaps an objection has been made to his goods that he has not thoroughly satisfied the customer upon. There should be no question in the mind of the buyer but that his objection has been fully met.

5. When all other methods fail, the salesman still has the privilege of asking his customer frankly, "What is the matter?" He should do this, when necessary, without backwardness.

Let it be borne in mind, however, that in "patching" a selling talk, the salesman must remember exactly where it was that he failed. He should then go back to that point, and proceed to work up the sale from that point in the regular order of presentation:—Audience, Attention, Interest, Desire, Action. If the salesman discovers that he has not the buyer's attention, let him revert to that step in the progress of the sale and work him up through successive stages of interest, desire, and action.

Student's Exercise for Lesson 38

(Fifty to seventy-five words)

Mr. Thompson objects to signing his name to your order-blank. Explain to Mr. Thompson why you must get him to sign your order-blank and why it is to his advantage to do so.

LESSON 39

ANSWERING OBJECTIONS

We have seen that the fundamental basis of a selling talk must be a description of the goods. Readiness in answering objections is a fundamental part of the salesman's equipment in this respect, and this lesson (which may be lengthened into several lessons, if desired, by the use of the exercises at the end) furnishes opportunity for much practice. The following objection, given as a sample, is perhaps the most common:

"Your Price is too High"

There are few salesmen who understand the dignity of a price, and among those who do understand this there are still fewer who understand exactly when a price ought to lose its dignity. That is, there are few salesmen who understand why a man should usually hold his goods at one price with great rigidity, and there are fewer still who understand how and when to lower prices in extreme cases.

Most buyers have learned never to try to induce a salesman to lower his prices because the salesman soon learns what to expect and puts up his prices next time. Similarly the salesman will usually find that it is to his benefit never to make a reduction, because if he does it once, it will be expected always.

Almost all salesmen will be provided with instructions from the house on this point. Below is a specimen of the instructions issued by one house to its salesmen.

"It is sometimes advisable to make a regular schedule of concessions. When this is deemed wise, treat all your customers, in the same locality, exactly the same. These concessions should in all cases be by 'giving in,' without charge, something in addition to their regular purchase, and never by 'throwing off' from the regular price. Some of our salesmen have secured excellent results by means of a definite system of 'giving in.' Assuming that a customer has evidently ended his selection, you may say then, 'If you take eighteen, I am allowed to give an extra one without charge.' Always remember that this 'throwing in' is to induce the customer to increase his selection from a smaller to a larger amount."

The student should observe that the plan of "throwing in" increases the total product disposed of, while the plan of "throwing off" a part of the price decreases the sale total. It also makes a better impression upon a customer to say, "I will give you 10% extra without cost to you," than to say, "I will give you a discount of 9 1/11%."

This principle might be applied successfully by almost any

salesman, the point being for him not to definitely lower the price of any article, but to add something to the order.

There are wholesale houses that refuse to give special reductions from special articles, but will give a general reduction on an entire bill of goods, thus protecting themselves from the charge of underselling any given item. A simple illustration of this is the "club rate" sometimes offered in the magazine business. Certain magazines can not be secured below a given price if purchased singly; but if several different magazines are purchased in a "club," a smaller price is accepted. The public, however, does not know which publication is being reduced in price.

"You sold these goods to Jones for less money than you did to me," is a complaint which almost always means you will get little future business from the customer who makes it.

The art of making concessions gracefully when it is necessary to make them at all is a very valuable one to the salesman and it will therefore be of interest for us in the exercise for this lesson to answer the objection, "Your price is too high."

In most cases, however, reductions are not wise and not permitted. The salesman must therefore answer by stating some reason, or a number of reasons, why the price is not too high. The lesson is purposely short, to allow ample time for exercise work.

Student's Exercise for Lesson 39

As an illustration for this exercise, consider the following answer to the objection "Your price is too high." The answer must show the purpose for which the article is used. The article in mind is a large office safe.

"Mr. Anderson, you might well say that the price of this safe is too high if its only purpose were to protect your cash from burglars; but you must remember that it protects your cash, your valuable papers, and your books. Remember that it not only protects these from burglars, but from mice, vermin, fire, and water as well. You might lose in a single fire papers that would be worth to you many times the cost of this safe."

For your exercises for this lesson select any one of the sixteen arguments suggested below. Choose any article to sell that you wish, and have

it in mind before proceeding. Mention the name of the article in your exercise.

Write an answer to the objection "Your price is too high," referring to:

1. The size of the article to be sold.
2. The color of the article.
3. The style of the article.
4. The productiveness of the article.
5. The fact that your system of installments makes the price very reasonable.
6. The reputation of your house as a guarantee that the price is fair.
7. The value of your article as a curio.
8. The cost of production and manufacture.
9. The public demand for the article.
10. The opinion of others as to the fairness of your price.
11. The fact that the article is increasing in value and that the present price, while it may seem high, is perfectly fair.
12. The fact that the article will pay for itself.
13. The offer of your house to refund the money if the dealer is not satisfied that the goods are worth the price.
14. The fact that competitors are charging more for the same goods.
15. The fact that the article can be adapted to many uses.
16. The fact that the article is fashionable.

Do not combine several reasons in this little exercise, but confine yourself to the one point selected.

If additional exercises in answering objections are desired, use the following list, handling each objection as in the exercise just finished:

1. Answer the objection "Your line is not up-to-date."
2. Answer the objection "You do not sell in small enough quantities."
3. Answer the objection "I never heard of your house before."
4. Answer the objection "Your goods are not popular."
5. Answer the objection "I do not like the colors in your line."
6. Answer the objection "Jones & Co. tell me they lost money on your line."
7. Answer the objection "Your terms are not liberal."
8. Answer the objection "I should have no use for your article."

CHART SIXTEEN

General Review Chart

SALESMANSHIP (See Chart 3)

- PSYCHOLOGY IN SALESMANSHIP
  - Mind Study
  - Mind Control (See Chart 11)
- KINDS OF SALESMANSHIP
  - Facts of identification and description (See Chart 4)
    - Name
    - Address
    - Extent of business
    - Attitude toward article
    - Attitude toward your make
    - (See Chart 6)
    - Personality
- KINDS OF SALESMEN
  - Customer
  - Thing Sold (See Chart 8)
  - Salesman (See Charts 9 and 10)
- FACTORS OF A SALE
  - How to analyze customer
    - Observation (See Chart 7)
    - Investigation
      - Inquiry of customer
      - Inquiry of others
      - Commercial associations
  - Selection of prospects
- SALES CLASSIFIED
  - Audience (Chart 12)
  - Attention (Chart 13)
  - Interest
  - Desire
  - (Chart 14)
  - Action (Chart 15)
- PROCESS OF SALE (See Chart 11)

This diagram represents to a certain extent the most vital essentials in salesmanship: The basic stone and the two above it represent Education.

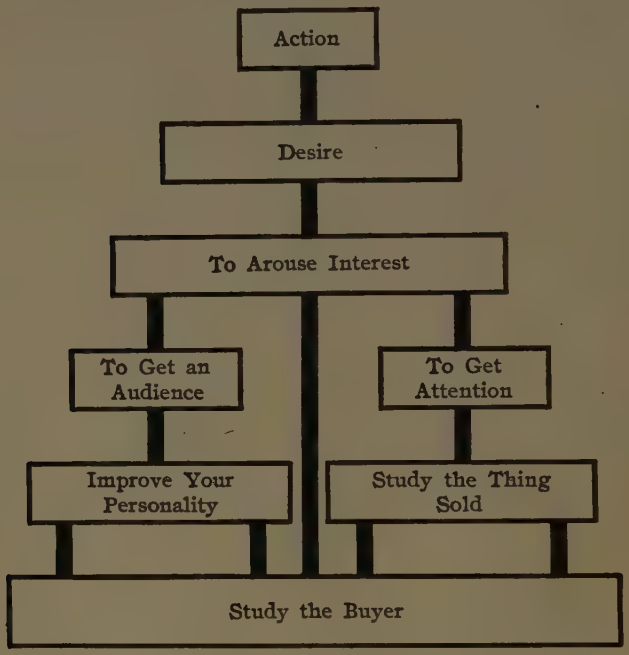


FIGURE 13. ESSENTIALS. READ FROM THE BOTTOM UP.

The Buyer's Audience and Attention depend mainly on the salesman's personality and knowledge of goods, respectively.

The Buyer's Interest, Desire, and Action depend upon all that has gone before.

PART VI
SUPPLEMENTAL CONSIDERATIONS

LESSON 40

SELECTING PROSPECTS

There are some salesmen who are not obliged to select their prospects, but are given a list of those whom they must visit, and are expected to see no one else. This class of salesmen is comparatively small. Most salesmen must always be on the alert for new customers, and many salesmen are required to look after this matter with very little assistance from the house.

The following lists will be found of value. As many of these suggestions should be used as the special case demands.

1. Your Former Customers.

This is the most valuable list you can possibly have. A salesman can make no greater mistake than to ignore, forget, or mistreat a former customer. Names of all your former customers should make up the backbone of your entire list.

2. Dun and Bradstreet Reports.

The commercial agencies of R. G. Dun & Co. and the Bradstreet Co. and other commercial agencies of the United States furnish customers not only with ratings of business, but with lists of names that are valuable. The names in Dun and Bradstreet are those of large and responsible firms. For many salesmen these lists will not be complete enough, but others will find that they contain nearly all the names that are desired.

3. City, State and Rural Directories.

These need no explanation. Where obtainable, directories will always be found valuable to salesmen who wish to cover the ground thoroughly and omit no one.

4. Trade Lists.

Trade lists are numerous in kind, and of different grades of value. There is the special list from an authoritative source. In this class come lists of members of societies, local associations, etc. They do not necessarily include all of the enterprising merchants of the district represented, but are likely to include most of them. Enterprising merchants usually belong to such associations. There are also general trade lists published. Their reliability will depend upon the reliability of the publisher. Many such publishers are absolutely reliable, as in the case of Dun and Bradstreet mentioned above. But there are others who sell names by the thousands, making strong claims for the correctness of the lists, when as a matter of fact the lists are very inaccurate and unreliable. The third class consists of merchants' local lists. When such lists are honestly published by merchants who have the good of their city at heart and are not attempting to boycott other merchants, they can sometimes be depended upon. Often, however, merchants' "Black Lists" are published by prejudiced and evil-minded persons, and are not reliable.

5. Church, School, and Club Membership Lists.

These lists are extremely valuable to salesmen who have articles for sale that appeal to any one of the classes of people listed in them.

6. Subscription Lists of Magazines and Newspapers.

It is generally difficult if not impossible to secure these lists on account of the fact that the publisher fears that the lists may fall into the hands of a competitor and be used to his damage. However, they are sometimes obtainable.

7. Lists Compiled by Other Merchants.

Frequently a merchant will get up a list of his own customers, and sell this list to other merchants who are not competitors.

8. Lists Sent in Answer to Premium Offers, Coupons, or Other Requests.

This sort of list is one of the most frequently found of all. A dealer takes it for granted that the enterprising retailer of his article will read the magazine in which he will see it advertised. He then makes it a point to prepare an advertisement so attractive that it is sure to draw the attention of those who would be interested, and either through a premium offer or a coupon he secures possession of their names and addresses.

9. Lists Secured by Correspondence.

It is best to secure a list by direct correspondence when possible, but of course you must have in advance a list of the people to whom you may write in order to determine whether or not they are interested. There are two classes of names to be secured by correspondence, namely, those who write to you first, thus showing an interest in your proposition, and those to whom you write first. It is taken for granted, of course, that most salesmen will give very careful attention to any customer whose name is secured in this direct manner.

Planning Visits

Having now secured your list of customers you are ready to plan your visits. This should be done with great care. The salesman should not rely upon memory except in very unusual cases. A list of customers should be kept in a pocket card file or a note book, and in some cases a map of a town, with a "plan of march" carefully outlined, will be found extremely valuable. A salesman with twenty or thirty customers to call on, can waste a great deal of time by not following a systematic plan of routing his calls.

The commercial salesman with a select trade experiences no great difficulty in planning his visits in a certain town. He experiences a greater difficulty, however, in arranging the order in which he will visit the towns on his list. Economy of time in

calling upon his customers in any town can be provided for by simply looking over the list of his customers, preferably in the evening when he has plenty of time, so that he can mentally determine the order in which he will visit them. Sometimes the list of customers is so small that even this is not necessary.

With the canvasser, however, the planning of visits is a very important question. The canvasser can make no more serious mistake than that of calling upon his customers in a haphazard order, and perhaps skipping a large number of them altogether. If a canvasser is honest and has a good proposition (and, of course, no other sort of person should be taking a course of lessons of this kind) he will find that one of the secrets of his success will be in making a thorough canvass of everybody in the neighborhood. In this way he can secure a strong local interest in his goods. He can also create a strong local confidence in himself, especially in the country. He can really make personal friends if his stay in the community is long enough; and this is of great value. A salesman can make no more serious error than to pick out certain houses and certain stores as most promising, and skip those that do not look so promising.

Where the country roads or the city streets are cut in regular squares the best plan in the country is to start at one end of the road taking all houses on both sides of the road, and all houses that are near the road on cross roads. Travel in this way five or six miles and then come back on the next road. This is the method that has been found by canvassers to be most economical of distance. If you will draw on your paper a map of a township six miles square with regular roads, and trace the route as suggested, you will see how one can cover a township thoroughly in this way with very little "doubling on his track."

In town, a very similar plan may be employed, where the streets are regular. Sometimes the canvasser goes up one side and down another on all the streets running east and west. But in general it is preferable to go up one side of the street, taking up cross streets on that side, and come straight back on

the other side of the street without stopping for cross streets. Repeat this on the adjoining street, and then on the third street, etc., and you will see that the ground has been covered completely by an economical plan.

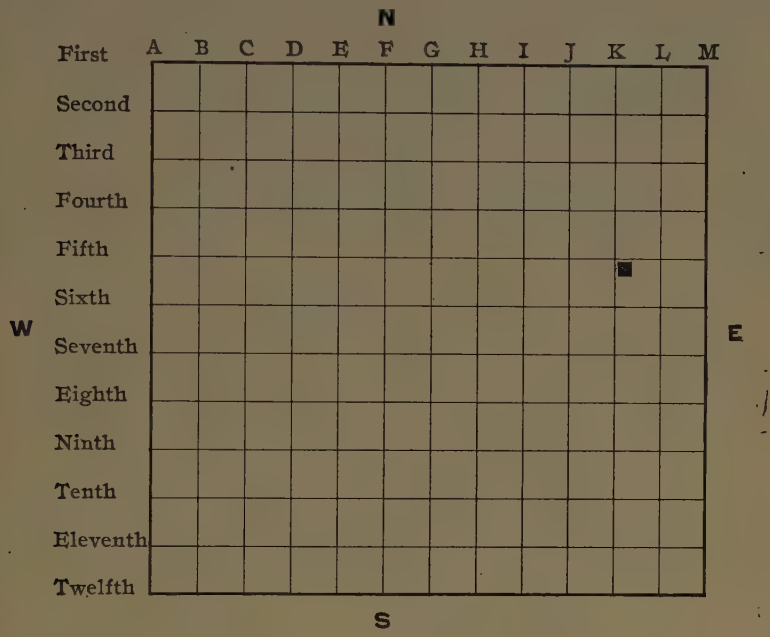


FIGURE 14. PLANNING ROUTE

Student's Exercise for Lesson 40

In Smithville, the streets running north and south are lettered from A to M, and the streets running east and west are numbered from First to Twelfth, as shown in the diagram above. The house numbers begin at 100 where A Street crosses the east and west streets, and run east one hundred to the block, with the odd numbers on the north side of the street. They begin at 100 where First Street crosses the north and south streets and run south one hundred to the block, the odd numbers being on the east side of the street.

Prepare a route list for the following addresses, starting from your hotel corner Fifth and K Streets, planning to walk the smallest possible number of blocks in your trip. First place an X on the diagram for each

house to be visited. Then arrange your addresses in the order in which you would visit them, and state the number of blocks required.

1000 Fourth	1050 Second	950 Ninth
150 M St.	825 K St.	450 Second
1075 Second	1075 First	800 Fifth
175 M St.	100 Third	150 C St.
925 Second	350 H St.	200 Second
1050 First	675 K St.	150 Fifth
1050 Third	650 Fifth	1050 Twelfth
150 K St.	1025 Eighth	850 L St.

Your written exercise will consist of the above list of addresses arranged in their proper order, followed by a statement of the number of blocks you will walk from the time you leave your hotel until you re-enter it.

CHART SEVENTEEN

SELECTING PROSPECTS

1. Your former Customers
2. Dun and Bradstreet Reports
3. City, State, and Rural Directories
4. Trade Lists
5. Church, School, and Club Membership Lists
6. Subscription Lists
7. Lists Compiled by Other Merchants
8. Lists Sent in Answer to Advertisements, etc.
9. Lists Secured by Correspondence

LESSON 41

THE NORMAL SELLING TALK

If every man were precisely like every other man, the question of salesmanship would be an easy one because it would only be necessary to test one man to find out exactly what kind of selling talk appealed to him, learn that selling talk, and deliver it over and over again.

Fortunately for the fascinating interest of salesmanship, this is not the situation. Every man varies from the normal at least a trifle, and your selling talk must be revised to suit him.

This suggests the most logical method of studying the selling talk, which is the consideration before us now. Let us construct a normal or standard talk that must appeal to a man with no prejudices or peculiarities. Having this normal selling talk, we will gain a clearer insight into the process of selling than we have thus far secured.

What does this normal selling talk consist of?

1. A correct, accurate description of the goods which are exhibited on the spot.
2. A statement of the price and terms of sale.
3. An invitation to the customer to buy.

Of course, in the above the question has been stripped of all side issues such as the necessity for correct conduct and conversation, the necessity for choosing the proper time to present the case, etc. I mean that, in the case of a normal customer, that is, a customer who can handle the goods and needs them, there is nothing for the salesman to do but the above, since this customer has no peculiarities and it is simply necessary that he see the goods, understand the proposition, and be invited to buy.

Such a man would not be influenced in his judgment by anything the salesman might say of an attractive or enticing nature. On the other hand, he would not be influenced against the goods on account of any personal short-comings of the salesman. He would be like a god in his ability to see the exact truth about those goods. Perhaps "normal" man is the wrong name to give this imaginary person. There is no such person in the world.

Possibly the best name for this imaginary customer is the "Standard Customer." There are only three questions for this man. They are:

1. What are the goods?
2. What is your proposition?
3. What is your price?

While this "Standard Customer" is not real, making an outline of a talk for such an imaginary and ideal customer will show what are the bare essentials of a selling talk.

Your description of the goods to this man must contain no comparatives or superlatives. In fact, it must contain no adjectives, except those referring to the technical construction of the goods. It must be merely a description based upon measurements, weights, and qualities, and a statement regarding the facts and conditions of the sale.

It is only natural that all buyers should attempt as far as possible to be like this standard or normal man with a judgment so perfect that it can be influenced neither for nor against a proposition by any outside consideration.

The student will see that all the lessons thus far have led up to the construction of the normal selling talk to which the first part of this text has been devoted. The study of this lesson really involves a consideration of all that has gone before.

If all men were alike, it would be necessary to have only one selling talk.

As it is, the best way to understand the psychology of selling is to take the man who represents the standard, or normal, or average, find out what are the bare necessities of description in talking to him, and construct a normal selling talk which will consist of:

1. Introduction.—For audience.
2. Statement of purpose of visit.—For attention.
3. Description of goods.—For interest.
4. Getting buyer to think of it in connection with himself, and statement of price.—For desire.
5. Invitation to buy.—For action.

Student's Exercise for Lesson 41

Select any article you wish and write a normal selling talk of not over two hundred words, along the line suggested in this lesson.

CHART EIGHTEEN

SUPPLEMENTAL REQUIREMENTS

1. Be accurate in taking order
2. Do not let customer overload
3. Help customer sell goods
4. See that your house handles order right
5. Study your failures
6. Be careful with expense account
7. Take good care of your samples
8. Leave when you have secured the order

Read the above chart carefully before studying the next lesson.

LESSON 42

HOW TO TREAT A CUSTOMER AFTER YOU HAVE HIS MONEY

We have already seen that in many cases, or perhaps in most cases, the profit in handling any line is in the "repeat orders."

Nearly all firms realize that it is sometimes necessary to spend more money to get the first order than the profit made on it.

They also realize that it is wise to treat a customer so well after he has bought that he will buy again.

Twenty years ago, if one bought goods at a store, and they proved unsatisfactory, he was lucky to be allowed to exchange them for something else, with the "merchant" making a neat little profit on the exchange as well as on the original sale.

Today the store that will not accept returned goods and place the amount to the customer's credit, is rather unusual; and the biggest and best stores will many of them pay the money back, the real hard cash, without question.

It would be pleasant to believe that this is an evidence of Christianity, the sign of the regeneration of mankind, an early stage of the Millennium, but the fact is that the first great merchant who did this led an immoral life.

He did it strictly because it was good business policy.

He was working for repeat orders.

When a customer is dissatisfied, his trade does not fall to zero. It falls to fifty below. He becomes an active enemy. His trade is lost and his neighbors' with it.

It would be pleasant to think of the ethics of the matter and consider the wholesaler and salesman purely as lovers of mankind, philanthropists, public benefactors.

They are; but they help their customers and prospective customers only, and they do it for reasons definitely connected with their own bank accounts.

There is no more dangerous business policy than that which considers the single sale as the ultimate end to be attained; and in proof of this we have only to recall to mind the observations of each one of us as to the most harmful and dishonest classes of salesmen. It is a matter of common knowledge that the canvasser and the promoter are less reliable, taken as a class, than salesmen with regular customers and established trade. The promoter who is selling stock in a risky enterprise—did you ever think why it is that he is usually a stranger to you? It is because he can usually work only once in any community. You may plead for delivery of what has been promised, after he has your money, but he belongs to the class who are not looking for repeat orders.

There is generally conceded to be a greater percentage of dishonesty and misrepresentation on the part of land agents than dry goods or clothing salesmen, and it takes only a small amount of brain power to see that the reason lies in the general theme we are considering. The dry goods or clothing salesman is looking for repeat orders, regularly every season.

Instinctively the housewife feels that she can trust the owner of the store where she trades regularly, while she buys at a new store, or of a canvasser, with extreme caution. The canvasser may be a more honest man than the dealer with whom she trades regularly—but she knows that the dealer is looking for repeat orders.

The manufacturers of Van Camp's Beans are said to have had a losing business until some one of their number conceived the idea of showing the purchaser, through advertisements, how the beans could be cooked in many attractive forms.

The customer is not unwilling to reciprocate, even when he realizes that the aid given him is strictly commercial in its motives.

Almost every business man finds that pleased customers are his best advertisement.

Lord & Thomas maintain that they once refused to continue conducting the advertising campaign of a certain firm because the firm's treatment of its customers produced no repeat orders.

A recent examination into the causes of enrollment in about thirty leading business colleges revealed the fact that thirty-seven per cent of the students came directly through the influence of past students; and about eighty per cent had felt this influence directly or indirectly.

The local merchant never knows how much benefit he receives from those who say to their friends, "Go to Jones Bros. I bought mine there." He seldom hears directly of such specific instances; yet in almost any sort of good business this is the chief advertisement.

If you could sell a good piano for five dollars, which would include keeping it in tune for twenty years, you would never have to advertise or "work up trade," after selling the first one; your customers would advertise for you. This extreme illustration stands for solid truth. Give good values and take care of your customers after they buy, and the sheriff's hammer will not be heard in your establishment.

But this is only part of your relation to a customer after you have made a sale. Do not take it for granted, once you have a man as your customer, that it is not going to require an effort to sell him again. It is perfectly proper to expect him to have a more favorable attitude than the first time, but you must show him that you are abreast of all times, improving your product each season, and still farther in the front rank than ever before.

In goods where style is an important item, it is idle to try to sell the same style year after year, for styles change, and everybody knows it.

In goods where mechanical contrivances are being improved constantly, your firm must move with the procession, and you personally must know every step in the moving of the procession.

Your knowledge of your own goods, also, must constantly increase. How often you hear it said of some old salesman, "Thirty years ago he was one of the best salesmen on the road, but he knows no more about his business now than he did then." This is utterly bad. Study is progressive and continuous, and one of the bad features of schools, as such, is the impression that is sometimes conveyed to the minds of even small children, that knowledge has to do with certain facts which, when once mastered, remain true forever.

Nothing is static. Everything moves. God Himself is said in the Scriptures to have changed His mind and altered His plans because of changed conditions.

When the time for your second sale comes, and every one after that, your buyer's problem is different from what it was the first time.

It may differ in any one or all of many points, as:

1. His success (or failure) with your goods has created an affirmative (or negative) influence.

2. His stock is larger (or smaller) than before, and this creates a negative (or affirmative) influence.

3. His friendliness to you has increased (or decreased) and this is a favorable (or unfavorable) item.

4. His own personality may be more optimistic and courageous (or the reverse) and this is good (or bad) in its effect on your special business.

5. Your goods may have been improved (or may not be so good) and this is for (or against) your cause.

6. Your competitor's goods may be better (or not so good) and this is a hindrance (or an advantage) to you.

And so on. Everything changes. You must be awake, and your knowledge and skill must increase in greater proportion than that of either your customer or your competitor.

From the standpoint of personality alone, your influence is sure to decrease unless you are constantly taking steps to increase it, and what is true of your personality is also true of your goods.

The whole object of helping your customer sell the goods you have sold him (aside from the fundamental consideration of common honesty and kindness) is to increase the probability that you will sell him again.

Sifted down to the two main essentials, the things that will bring this about are:

1. The assistance you render him in disposing of what you have already sold him.

2. A definite improvement in your own goods or proposition.

This brings us to a new consideration of great importance—the raising of prices.

Everybody knows that the natural tendency of prices in general (at least in America in the last fifty years) has been to rise. What your grandfather could buy for fifty cents, you may now have to pay a dollar for, or a dollar and a half.

The manufacturer and dealer must raise prices at times, to continue business at a profit.

Now, obviously, it is a mistake to say to a customer, "We sold this last year for a dollar. This year we must get a dollar and a quarter for the same thing."

A few corporations, with a monopoly of certain products, can do this. In the case of a few staple products it can also be done. The ordinary merchant cannot do it, nor can he lie about it.

There is a good way to handle this question, and nearly all wise firms and companies do it. They raise prices and improve service at the same time. This is the simple, easy way to encounter one of the most serious difficulties of all business. To raise prices without improving the product or the service is business suicide in many cases. But the man who carefully figures out a new plan, a new device, or an improvement in quality, can raise

prices without serious danger, and in many cases can improve his business by this process. And this is one of the ways to treat your customer after you have him. Unkind as it may seem, it is necessary, and no fair-minded customer will object to a fair rise, unless it is managed brutally.

Exercise for Lesson 42

You have been selling a shaving stick for fifteen cents. In order to raise the price when you can no longer sell it profitably at fifteen cents, you furnish it in a tin box with a bottom that can be pushed up as the shaving stick is worn short. You now charge twenty-five cents. Write two hundred words showing the reasonableness of the advance in price.

LESSON 43

OTHER SUPPLEMENTAL REQUIREMENTS

The best interests of the *customer* must be served zealously, both at the time of taking the order and afterwards. The best interests of the *house* must be jealously guarded in the making of specific selling contracts, in the diligent use of the firm's time, and in the economical handling of the firm's money. The best interests of the *salesman* himself also demand careful observance of certain supplemental requirements. Many of these requirements are mentioned in this lesson. The alert student will doubtless think of many more.

Send the Order to the House Accurately and Promptly

The student will remember that accuracy is the only requirement of the simplest class of sale. It is equally a requirement of more difficult sales, for the man who makes a mistake in an order loses business by his carelessness.

Do Not Let the Customer Overstock

It is necessary for the salesman to see that the customer buys right; if the customer has ordered too much, it is the salesman's

duty to so inform him in order that he will not fail or sustain an injury in business. The salesman who refuses to see or consider this phase of selling is working not only against his customer's interest, but against his own interest. If he stocks a customer with more goods than the customer can sell and the customer therefore does not sell all he has, the natural inference will be that the article is not so good a seller as it should be. Another natural inference will be that the salesman has "worked" the customer, and this will not augur well for the next year's business. Many extraordinarily successful salesmen state, not boastfully but as a mere every-day matter of fact, that it is frequently quite important for them to use every energy to keep the customer from buying as much as he would like to of certain articles, because they know if he does this in his enthusiasm he will probably lose money on the line, and this will injure their chances of doing permanent business with him.

It will be seen from the foregoing that this naturally involves a study of the customer's business to a limited extent. The skilled salesman should know enough about his customer's business to prevent him from making an error either in the kind or the amount of goods that he advises his customer to buy. This cannot be done without a study of the individual customer's requirements.

The young salesman should be particularly careful, however, regarding advice to a customer on such matters as overloading. Large orders may stagger the young salesman when the buyer knows he can use the goods. In most cases the buyer will resent the reflection upon his judgment if suggestions in this line are offered in the form of advice. Tact in getting at his requirements is necessary. Sometimes it is most easily arrived at by getting him to give you an estimate of his probable average consumption per month, suggesting that if he can use *more* you might be able to offer a *slight advantage* in price or discount, but that you would want to make sure that he could use the quantity. If possible, you should determine this beforehand and quote prices on the quantities he ought to buy.

The problem of selling your man exactly the right amount of each item is a delicate one. An Adler's clothing salesman once said, "I have several customers with whom my chief problem is to keep them from overstocking. One of my buyers during a presidential campaign year wanted to buy more than twice what I knew he needed. I had nearly to fight him to keep his order down. Then came a slow business. The fall was far advanced before the election flurry passed by, and then nearly five weeks of mild weather followed, at the end of which a large per cent of customers decided to make the last year's suit do. Several merchants went to the wall that winter, and my man had difficulty in pulling through. If I had let him buy all he wanted to, he would have passed in his chips like the rest; but now, as the result of my advice, he is a better customer than ever."

Help Your Customer Sell the Goods

This next step in the proceeding is perfectly logical. The salesman must inform his customer how best to handle, advertise, display, and sell the goods. All this advice should be given in a modest way of course, and never with any idea of appearing to know more than the customer, but it must be given in justice both to the goods and to the purchaser. If you, as a salesman, know of a certain thing that can be done to increase the customer's sales twenty-five or fifty per cent, you certainly can do nothing more wise than to inform him how this can be done. If he disagrees with you, it is not a matter that you can debate with him, because he is the final judge; but if you fairly bristle with ideas, some of them will get into the customer's mind, and an increased sale of your goods will be the direct or indirect result.

See That Your House Handles Your Customers' Goods to Their Advantage

You must study your house's methods of manufacture and sale of goods so that no detail will escape you upon which you ought to be informed. But you should especially note the house's

methods of handling the goods shipped to your own customers. You must look to the interests of your customers in the packing and handling of the goods. It is not the salesman's business to make himself obnoxious to his employer, but it is distinctly his business to see that the customer is treated as he has been promised. If there are ways in which the house could improve its handling of these goods, the salesman should let this be known to those in charge.

It often counts very strongly for you if you are able to say to your customer truthfully, "I was in the house when this order was being put up, and I especially watched the selection of goods that we sent in your order number so-and-so and your order number so-and-so." Of course some houses do not permit their salesmen to do this, and you have to be governed by the rules established by your employer, but often you can see to it that your customer's order gets some little care in its arrangement and packing, or even in the selection of the goods, which it might not have had otherwise.

Study Your Failures

Even when you fail to take an order, you still have a duty to perform. It is your business to study your failure and analyze it, not in a discouraged way, but in a fair and open-minded fashion, and tell yourself why you failed. This will be of great help to you in making future sales.

One duty of the salesman that is frequently found profitable is that of keeping some kind of record of his visit to the customer, and what was said. Many salesmen keep a pocket card file and others keep a pocket memorandum book in which the name of the customer, his address, the date of the visit, and other facts are recorded, including a record of what was said at the time. Suppose you can say to a customer, "Mr. Jones, when I was here in June you told me that you had a large supply of Smith's neckties, and I have called to see if you have sold these and are now in the market for our goods." You have scored a

great point right there. Your customer does not know, perhaps, that you keep a written memorandum of this, but he is pleased to observe that you have his particular case in mind, and that you know exactly what the situation is. It is likely to be of immense value to you in beginning your second attempt to sell him. "Many times," said a Baker-Vawter salesman, "I have been interested to see how delighted and pleased customers are that I should remember their names, though perhaps they have forgotten mine altogether. It gives me credit for having paid close attention to them, and for having noticed them very carefully, and I presume it compliments them after a fashion; yet I have a very poor memory and the credit is entirely due to my habit of keeping a memorandum of the names of those to whom I talk and the remarks that they made that were significant."

The Expense Account

A word must be said here also on the matter of the expense account. This is something that there can be no fixed rule for. Some salesmen have no expense items whatever allowed by the house. Others are allowed to spend practically any amount that they want to spend. There are certain rules, however, that will apply in any case.

The first of these rules is that you must never spend any money for the business that does not bring results in the business. Any employer would rather keep a dollar than have his salesman spend it, if it brings nothing in. Second, you must hew absolutely to the line established by your employer in this matter. Your expense account is vital to him, and since he is paying the money rather than you, you must not violate his orders regarding the expense account. Have a thorough understanding as to what items shall be on the expense account. Your employer will appreciate it if you can keep these items low.

There are certain lines of business in which it is necessary for the salesman to have the best there is in the line of hotel and railroad accommodations. Perhaps his class of customers is such

that they would not do business with him otherwise. There are other lines where it makes no difference what hotel one stays at or whether he rode or walked from the last town.

There is just one thing necessary in conclusion. The salesman should remember that his employer has the same regard for a dollar that he has, and unless it is distinctly understood that he is to spend money in certain unusual ways, he ought not to be more extravagant with his employer's money than with his own; and he should also remember that the thing that justifies the expense account is the list of sales, for so long as the list of sales is good, the expense account will not be a matter of as great concern as it would be otherwise.

Much misunderstanding about the expense account is due to the boastful lying that is prevalent among traveling men of a certain class. Just as young boys are led into wickedness by keeping company with boys two or three years older who talk about having done many mean, low-down things that they really never had either the courage or the opportunity to do, so young salesmen are frequently lured into extravagance with "the company's money" through false statements made by those who boast that their company encourages them to use fine hotels, expensive cafés, automobiles, high-priced cigars, wine suppers, and the like, when the probabilities are that it is not true at all.

Fortunately for salesmen as a class, there are not many such men in the business; but, unfortunately, the men of that kind who are in it are the ones who are most frequently heard in smoking cars, hotel lobbies, etc., when questions of this kind come up for discussion.

Such fellows are just as likely as not, when they reach the next town, to claim that their firms are stingy, if they happen to strike a vein of conversation that renders the remark appropriate.

Exercise for Lesson 43

You are selling kitchen ranges. Your firm allows you to spend three days in the fall as special retail salesman with each house that will purchase twenty or more ranges, to assist in a special sale to the public. There

is to be only one firm in town to handle the line. Write not over one hundred fifty words presenting this as an argument in favor of your line. Your customer's name is Weber.

LESSON 44

HOW TO HANDLE YOUR SAMPLES

Many salesmen fail without knowing why, when the reason lies entirely in the fact that their samples have not been handled carefully and have either been broken, injured, or soiled. The care of samples is a matter of the utmost importance, for no buyer will look favorably upon the purchase of goods if the samples are not in good shape. The same is true of the display of samples. These subjects are worthy of the most careful thought, and salesmen who succeed must realize their importance. It is not honest for samples to be made of better material and quality than the goods to be delivered, but it is certainly not only fair but extremely important that they be fully up to grade and exhibited in the most attractive way.

Care of Samples

Certainly there is nothing that will be more damaging to a man's business than for him to be careless with his samples. When they begin to look dirty and unattractive the buyer will not be pleased with them. This seems so evident that it hardly needs comment, yet it should be stated here that many a salesman fails absolutely without knowing why he fails, and the reason is that the samples are unattractive. Furthermore, when a salesman has a large line of goods, he must have them so that he can readily place his hands upon any article wanted, or he will often lose a sale and will always leave a bad impression in the mind of the customer. Business men have no time to wait while the salesman hunts through his samples for a lost article. The buyer's attention may be lost—and with it, the sale.

The care of samples becomes especially important when the samples are especially made up in advance and the stock is not yet ready for delivery. In this case, it is frequently impossible for a good sample to be secured to replace a damaged one. Again, careful and systematic handling of samples makes it easier for the salesman to find what he wants and he can do his work better if he is working with samples that are perfect in appearance and so laid out that he can find them without worry or loss of energy.

No salesman can expect to meet any degree of success if what he displays is broken, rusty, rotted, torn, dirty, or out of shape; yet many good talkers disqualify themselves at the start because of poor displays. The buyer cannot be allured by a siren-lipped orator who is compelled to describe what his goods would be like if they were in good condition. The appeal of the sample to the eye should be convincing and irresistible.

An ounce of forethought in packing is worth thirty pounds of conversation.

It is not sufficient to pack and ship samples so that they will not be broken or injured. That is only the first step. They must be put into such shape that they can be quickly and conveniently displayed.

It is not only a waste of the buyer's time if the salesman is compelled to fumble, hitch, and turn a double somersault to get his samples ready for display. It is a bad psychological error. The buyer is annoyed and has an opportunity to lose interest. Either is fatal to most sales.

The explanation of a failure to make a proper and speedy display is at best a lame and halting affair. At its worst it is a disgrace, a knock-out, and the funeral of an order. And the worst usually happens.

The logic of the matter is this: The buyer says:

1. This has happened to the sample. It will happen to the goods themselves.

2. The salesman has no pride in his goods. They are not worth being proud of.

3. This fellow is trying to explain what should not need explanation.

But what I have just said is the negative of the film. It is what should not happen, what is lost, something wrong to be explained, a bad effect on the buyer. The positive of the film is the important thing; and that refers to what the salesman should do for good effect. He should display his goods well and talk about them well.

A successful sale demands masterful presentation of arguments and inducements to buy. The salesman's thought should be uninterrupted by accidents and bad impressions. His power lies in self-confidence, and the careless handling of goods puts him in an embarrassing position where he loses it.

Some articles demand a special skill in manipulation on the salesman's part to present them for display. If an article is large and awkward to handle, this skill becomes essential not only in the original packing of the goods, but in the actual handling before the eye of the buyer.

Of course, when the article is a furnace, a stove, or a table, the salesman can't juggle three or four of them in one hand; but even stoves and tables must be properly set up for display, and the salesman who doesn't understand how best to handle them in preparation for exhibition, or how to handle the catalogs by which they may be sold, is a candidate for dismissal.

Display

In the case of many articles, such as carpets, rugs, and the like, the questions of handling and displaying are united. For instance, the rug salesman has his goods upon the familiar rack on which the rugs of various designs are swung on hinges, and every housewife who has spent a day looking for a parlor rug will at once realize by comparing one store with another, what an advantage the salesman had whose handling and display was made easy by a perfect system. The others wore her out. They pulled and hauled, explained and apologized; and they

failed to impress her with a sense of luxury, refinement, and good taste.

This comparatively well-known illustration shows the close connection between handling and display in some lines. In the majority of lines the two are less closely connected.

The enticing display of goods is most vital to salesmanship, for it accompanies, enforces, and illustrates the points of argument. Display involves a study of the appeal to all the senses. Of course, sight is the most important, but in some cases the other senses must be effectively appealed to; as, hearing, in the case of musical instruments; touch, in the case of a well-bound book; smell, in the case of perfumes; taste, in the case of vegetables; and the appeal to the senses is, in the last analysis, the thing that sells goods.

The art of making a man think a thing for himself finds its chief support in the unspoken appeal to the senses; and most buyers prefer to do their own thinking.

First impressions are extremely important not in and of themselves, but on account of the great influence they exert over all the remaining process of the sale.

To understand the cause of the importance of these first impressions of things, it is merely necessary to refer to your own first impressions of people. When the effect of your first introduction or acquaintance with a person has been to repel, it has taken you months or years to eradicate it even when you have found the person to be different from what you thought him. Sometimes you have been unable to change your opinion at all.

Conversely, favorable observations at first sight have led to friendships, partnerships, and marriages that nobody could explain, prove, or understand afterwards, not even the persons themselves.

Spendthrifts are people who yield to first impressions without a struggle; and nearly everyone has a little of that element in him.

To create the most favorable impression at the start should be the aim of every salesman when he is making preparations for an effective approach; and in the displaying of goods these impressions cannot be made without art and skill.

I have seen coal samples shown in a clean box. There is an indescribable sense of satisfaction in buying goods that are well displayed by the salesman. It gives the buyer confidence that the delivered product will be in the same clean condition.

There are no articles, from pianos to collar buttons, that cannot be sold much more easily if well displayed, and the ability to display goods attractively is worthy of careful, deep thought.

One should understand color combinations. Many a necktie sale is lost by the salesman who carelessly places side by side two colors that "fight" each other. Many an opal has remained on the shelf because it was displayed on a jaundice-yellow background. The illustrations in books are not for information only. They are part of the display.

Care must be used not to over-display or display too many items or the buyer's mind will become confused.

To show too many samples is to defeat your purpose of definitely interesting the buyer in one, or a few.

To display too many pages of a book is to satiate curiosity and deaden interest.

Every good salesman must learn the art of leaving some things to the imagination.

Another rule of display that is of even greater importance is this: Show your customer what he wants to see.

Suppose your customer wants to see something that you have. He is all right, and you are safe. Nothing but the inane, block-headed stupidity of a stubborn salesman who is bound to show something else would or could prevent an easy sale if the price were right.

But, suppose he does not want to see what you have. Now you have a chance to show your art. You must make him want to see it before you show it.

Every sale takes place first in the salesman's imagination; second, in the buyer's mind; third, in fact.

What we are interested in now is the buyer's mind.

The point is to get something in it that is not there now; and to do it before showing your sample.

You must get it there before showing your sample because as a skilled salesman you know that it must appear to the buyer that he is getting what he wants himself, not what you are trying to foist upon him.

Being human, he wants to suit himself.

You are to prepare him so that he will expect and desire to see what you have to exhibit.

The art you need is the power of suggestion.

First, then, you must find out what your customer likes and believes in. No matter how slender the thread that connects what he wants with what you have, you will find something.

There must be something, either in relation to color, size, shape, quality, style, quantity, price, methods of use, reputation of your house, history of the article, methods of manufacture, methods of production, extent of use, opinions of others, efficiency, ingredients, or equipment, concerning which your goods and the buyer's mind agree. Find that thing.

Start with the point of agreement. Of course, if there is only one such point your task is hard; but the chances are there will be many such points.

Nine times out of ten, you can skillfully induce your buyer to describe something you can supply. Then, "I believe I have what you are speaking of," becomes an argument of mighty strength, where "Your idea is all wrong" would have lost the sale.

Now, then, back to the subject of displaying goods. The display should follow the favorable mental impression, not precede it. To exhibit a bookkeeping text for sale to a picnic crowd is bad policy, not to say bad manners. An impression favorable to the study of bookkeeping should precede the exhibition of the text if you expect to do any selling.

Summing up the question of display of samples, we find that they must be shown

1. In good condition
2. In a tasteful way
3. In a convenient form
4. In proper quantities
5. After favorable introductory impressions
6. At the proper time

Leave When You Have the Order

Many a sale has been canceled because the salesman "stayed around for a friendly chat" and thus gave the customer a chance to change his mind. Many an order has been altered or cut down on account of the same thing. Even when this has not happened, many a buyer has seized upon the opportunity thus presented to ask for further concessions.

When you have what you care for, leave the town, or at least go where your customer will not see you and be tempted to reconsider his order.

Exercises for Lesson 44

You have displayed a splendid line of fall suits, and have made an excellent impression. State in fifty words why the reputation of your house is a guarantee that the goods will be up to sample.

LESSON 45

RECORDS

The importance of keeping accurate, brief, and convenient records of your work can hardly be overestimated. If work is not important enough to be recorded, it is not important enough to get paid for.

Many houses furnish proper record forms to their salesmen. Where this is not done, the salesman must provide his own.

As an illustration of how such records are kept, we present the following form used by the representatives of a successful business college:

Record of Work

Record of Individual Call. This may be kept in either of two ways. The first is a 3x5 in. card blank.

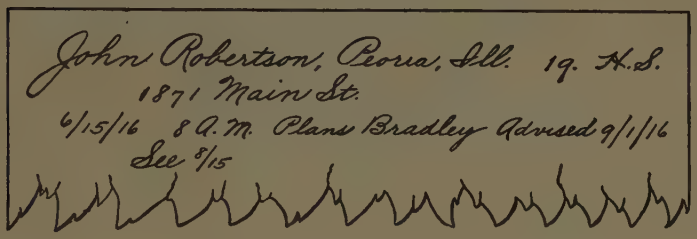


FIGURE 15. RECORD OF WORK

The above means that John Robertson of 1871 Main St., Peoria, Illinois, is 19, and a graduate of the high school. (This information may have been given the salesman before the visit.) The salesman called at 8 a. m., found that Mr. Robertson (don't call him John, unless a personal friend) planned to enter Bradley Polytechnic Institute in September, advised him to enter business college instead, and thought the case important enough to call again August 15. Had Mr. Robertson promised to enroll September 1, the notation would have been: "Will enroll 9/1/16. See 8/15."

In either case the card would be filed with school office in a regular dated file under the date 8/15/16.

If the entry is "Not interested Day or Night, Works Acme," the card will be returned to the general file. If the entry is "Moved; address unknown," the card will be returned to the office where it will be destroyed.

In some cases records are kept in a book, but this is objectionable for two reasons: a. All names must be copied before

visits can be made. b. The salesman who uses a book cannot separate good names from bad for purposes of follow-up filing.

Traveling salesmen with a limited list of possible buyers ordinarily use a book record.

Daily Record

After making proper records of individual calls, the salesman must keep a daily record of his work, *for his own information,* even if his employer does not want it—which is an almost impossible thing to imagine. The following is suggested:

Date	No. Hours	No. of Calls	No. of Selling Talks	Prospects	Enrollments
Sept. 15	7	32	20	1	
16	9	38	24	2	2 Day
17	7½	46	18	0	
18	9	33	25	1	
19	8	45	30	5	2 Night
20	8½	42	27	3	1 Night
Total	49	236	144	12	5

FIGURE 16. DAILY RECORD

Use. For salesman. The salesman can readily see that he did a bad day's work on Wednesday, Sept. 17, and a good day's work on Friday, Sept. 19, though he made a large number of calls each day. He can analyze the reason. With this record also he can see whether he is working eight hours a day, and compute his value to his house, as the employer is sure to do.

Use. For employer. The employer first observes whether the salesman is getting results.

Results means enrollments. The average amount of tuition that will be paid by a Day School student has been found by a large business college organization to be $59. The average Night School, $19. This salesman cannot be judged by the school's ability to hold its students up to that average, but should be given credit at whatever amounts the school averages per student when his producing power is estimated. If the amounts

are as given above the salesman has produced $2 \times \$59$ plus $3 \times \$19 = \$175.00$.

This business college organization does not pay commissions, but salaries. It has found that it can hire good salesmen on a salary basis equivalent to not less than 15 per cent nor more than 20 per cent. The salesman who produces $175 per week is worth $26.25 to $35 per week.

If your employer doesn't demand a report, report to yourself! And use a regular form.

Exercise for Lesson 45

Draw a diagram of a card such as you would carry in your pocket to note calls on your trade and their results. In doing this, select any line of business in which you are interested.

LESSON 46

WHAT EVERY SALESMAN SHOULD KNOW ABOUT CREDITS

Many years ago the salesman was not supposed to know anything about credits.

His job was to sell goods.

It made no difference to him whether the account was collectible or not.

That was the business of the credit man.

Managers have more sense than to consent to such a plan today.

The salesman is in a position to give valuable information about the customer.

The manager or credit man may call upon the salesman for that information and he must be prepared to give it.

In this as in everything else the salesman is learning that his work connects him with every department of business and that

the more he knows about business in general the better salesman he will be.

Credit is the trust reposed in men because of their character and resources.

J. P. Morgan said before the Pujo Investigating Committee when the money trust was being investigated, "Character is the basis of credit."

There is a sense in which this is true.

A wealthy man without character cannot get credit even when he gives security. Money lenders have so many opportunities to loan money where it will be safe that they don't care to take the chances on a man who may attempt to defraud them.

On the other hand, a man may possess the most sublime character in the world and he will not be able to get credit unless he has the ability to pay when the time comes.

Hence, as stated above, credit depends upon character and resources—resources meaning the security offered by either property or money-making ability.

A successful firm makes its dividends fully as much by the orders it does not ask for or rejects as by those it accepts.

It is a dangerous matter for a firm to refuse credit to a buyer who is both able and willing to discharge his obligations.

It therefore becomes a matter of vital importance that no mistake be made, and the salesman is called upon to give what information he can in regard to the buyer.

The salesman's job for the credit department is:

1. To find out what he can without prying.

No salesman will be successful if a buyer has the slightest reason to imagine that the salesman questions his ability to pay or is inquisitive in regard to his affairs.

2. To deal honestly with buyers so that honest buyers will deal with him.

There is nothing truer than the old saying that, "Birds of a feather flock together." Honest buyers will naturally be attracted toward honest salesmen. Dishonest buyers will not be appealed to by the straightforward, honest salesman who treats

all alike. Hence, it is of the greatest importance to the credit department that your actions be such as to attract honest buyers only.

3. To sell only goods that are needed and will produce a profit.

When you sell goods that are not needed or goods that cannot be resold by the retailer at a profit, you have helped to impair the buyer's future ability to pay. You have injured his future credit and your own firm, in case of failure, will be one of the worst sufferers.

4. Sell carefully to merchants whose credit is not known to be established.

Advise such a man to buy in small quantities frequently, rather than in large quantities at long intervals. This is best for him and for you. Your house benefits because it is carrying a smaller risk. The buyer benefits because he can "turn stock" more often in a year. Thus he will make larger profits on a safer credit margin. It is possible for a merchant to handle as large a business with $5,000 invested, by "turning his stock" four times a year, as if he had $20,000 invested and "turned the stock" only once a year. Besides, he is playing safe all the time. He is watching his stock closer; and so on.

5. Study the causes of failure and watch for signs of them in advance.

Bradstreet's record of failures and their causes classifies these as shown in the following extract:

Why Men Fail

(Extract from Bradstreet's Records of 1914.)

While the statement or proverb that man is, largely speaking, the architect of his own fortune, seems to stand the test of Bradstreet's failure statistics, it is noted that in 1914 extraneous causes slightly reduced the proportion of failures due to the individual, as opposed to outside contributing troubles. Below will be found the grouping of causes according as the individual or happenings outside of his control have made for his failure:

A. DUE TO FAULTS OF THOSE FAILING	78.8%
Incompetence (irrespective of other causes)	28.0%
Inexperience (without other incompetence)	5.6
Lack of Capital	29.4
Unwise Credits	2.5
Speculation (outside of regular business)	.7
Neglect of Business (due to doubtful habits)	2.2
Personal Extravagance	.9
Fraudulent Disposition of Property	9.5
B. NOT DUE TO FAULTS OF THOSE FAILING	21.2
Specific Conditions (disaster, etc.)	16.4
Failure of Others (of apparently solvent debtors)	1.8
Competition	3.0
	100.0 100.0

In 1914, 78.8 per cent of the failures were attributed to the shortcomings of those who failed, while 21.2 per cent were classed as due to reasons beyond their control.

Lack of Capital in 1914 figured as the leading cause of failure, surpassing Incompetence as a cause, as in 1913. In 1912, it might be recalled, Incompetence led as the principal cause of failure. In 1914, however, it accounted for 28 per cent of all failures as against 29.4 per cent due to Lack of Capital, whereas in 1912 the proportions were 30.2 and 29.7. Inexperience without other incompetence, however, showed an increase, the percentage being 5.6 in 1914 against 5.1 in 1913. Fraudulent Disposition, an essentially personal cause, accounted for only 9.5 per cent of all failures in 1914, whereas in 1913 the proportion due to this cause was 11.1 per cent, the latter a percentage only four times exceeded in twenty-three years. * *

In the list on non-personal causes, Specific Conditions, which include strange or unexpected happenings, such as disasters, panics, floods, etc., claimed a large number of victims, the proportion being 16.4 per cent as against 15.3 per cent in 1913. Competition also was reported to be a greater factor, with 3 per cent as against 2.3 per cent in 1913. Failures of Others dropped slightly, being 1.8 in 1914 and 1.9 in 1913. It is worth noting that comparing the four leading causes, Lack of Capital, Incompetence, Specific Conditions and Fraud, with another year of stress, 1908, there was a shrinkage in the aggregate percentage due to declining ratios of Lack of Capital, Specific Conditions and Fraud. Incompetence, however, gained heavily, and though not charged with as much responsibility as in 1912 and 1913, it seems to have taken second place permanently as a moving cause of failure. * *

Of the 19,659 insolvent business concerns in the United States and Canada in 1914, 18,789, or 95.6%, were those rated as having Very Moderate or No Credit. * * .

Those failing in the two countries possessed of $5,000 capital or less were 91.9 per cent of the whole, as against 91.8 per cent in 1913, 91.5 in 1912, 90.9 per cent in 1911, and 91.5 per cent in 1910. The percentage, in fact, is by a shade the highest recorded since 1902. Of those failing in the two countries, 55.2 per cent had less than $5,000 liabilities, as against 56.7 per cent in 1913, and the lowest percentage there is record of in the past twenty-four years. * *

Examine the table given and keep it in mind. It will suggest to you a dozen points on which your personal observations will be of advantage to your house.

6. Learn to read character honestly.

There are two methods of doing this. One is the study of character in the manner suggested throughout this book. The other is a cultivation of an admirable character of your own. You can't test the temperature of a room with a thermometer that is broken. You can't weigh any other man's character if your own character scales are not properly balanced. It is often said that women are, by intuition, better judges of character than men. They like or dislike without knowing why and they are generally right. If this is true, it is no doubt because women are morally better than men and are, therefore, more honest judges of character.

7. Be optimistic in your analysis of every buyer's character and condition.

Your business is to help, not to hinder. When it comes to a questionable case, the credit man is the "watch dog" of the treasury after all. A suspicious, prying salesman of inquisitive propensities is an abomination. He should be a detective, not a salesman.

Exercise for Lesson 46

Explain to a buyer (Mr. Tomkins) why he should buy in small quantities and turn stock four times a year in your line. Confine yourself to one hundred fifty words or less, and explain from *his* standpoint, not *yours*.

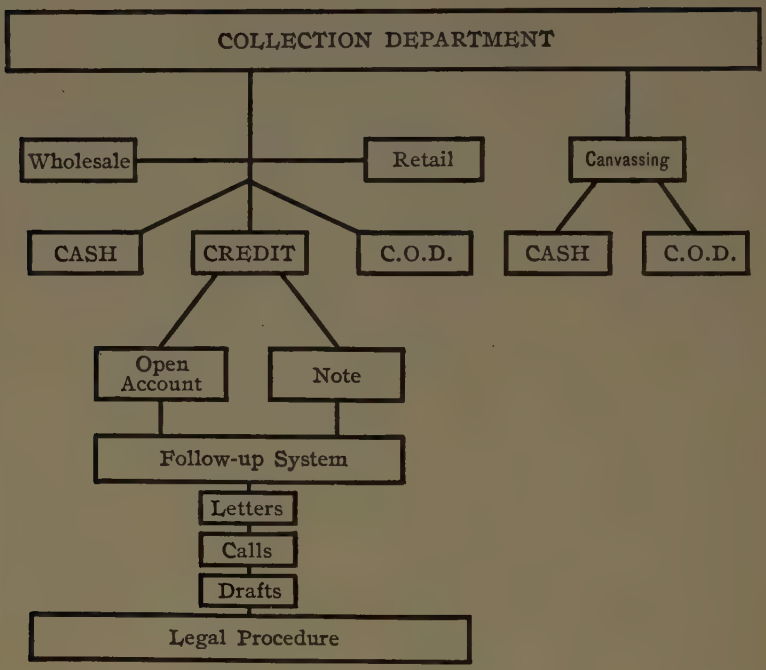


FIGURE 17. COLLECTION SYSTEM

LESSON 47

COLLECTION ARGUMENTS

Collecting requires salesmanship.

1. The sale of *goods* has been made by you.
2. *Credit to the purchaser* has been extended by your house.
3. The sale of *payment to your firm* must sometimes be made by you.

Study point 2 above until you thoroughly understand why it is true that the buyer became a salesman when he asked you for credit and got it—or even got it without asking.

Study point 3 above until you thoroughly understand why you must perform an act of salesmanship when you collect a bill.

It is true that you are entitled to the money. But you haven't it yet.

You must show the buyer why he should pay.

To do this you must study the question just as you studied your sale, and the scientific outline of salesmanship with which you are already familiar, furnishes the basis of your study.

Examine the following chart:

CHART NINETEEN

COLLECTIONS
1. Factors of a collection
2. Collections classified as to simplicity
3. The study of psychology in collection
4. Planning collection visits
5. Mental process of a collection

Factors of a Collection

The factors of a collection are:

1. The Debtor
2. The Bill
3. The Collector

All the various facts about the collection must be assembled in their relation to these three factors, as follows:

Factor No. 1—The Debtor

1. Name
2. Address
3. Extent of his business
4. Attitude toward your house and article you sold him
5. His personality

You have already studied these points in general. Now you must study them with special reference to collections.

Name and Address

One of the chief difficulties in collecting, especially from dishonest or irresponsible persons, is to keep track of the location of the debtor.

It is not sufficient to know his location at the time of your call. You must investigate his plans enough to learn in advance whether he is going to move, and if so, when and where.

For this reason, a collection report, in addition to giving the name and address of the debtor should contain lines for the question: *Is he planning to move? If so, when and where?*

To ascertain these facts requires great skill on the part of the collector. They may be ascertained in the following ways:

1. Direct inquiry.
2. Inquiry of neighbors or others in same line of business.
3. Inquiry of landlord as to length of lease and payment thereon.
4. Inference from condition of business and appearance of store or home.

Extent of Business

You have already investigated this, but with regard to your collection you must now find out whether it is growing or decreasing from the following sources:

1. Dun, Bradstreet, or Local Commercial Agency
2. Bank
3. The proprietor himself

Attitude toward Your House and the Article You Have Sold Him

With regard to your collection, you must find out whether this attitude has changed since he bought the goods. Here it is necessary to use especial care, not to depend so much upon what he says as upon the conditions that actually exist, as:

1. Has he sold them?

2. Did he sell them at a profit?
3. Were his customers satisfied?
4. Would he buy again if his bill were settled?

Often a buyer becomes the customer of one of your competitors simply because you have allowed him to go so deeply in your debt that you cannot extend further credit, and he is either angry at your house or ashamed to continue relations with you. A well-known clothier of Jacksonville, Illinois, has this to say:

"My business was slowly slipping away from me. I could not understand it because I carried the best line in town and was very liberal with my credit accounts. I had over twelve thousand dollars on my books.

"One day I saw a customer who owed me $75.00 buy a hat of a competitor. It made me angry. I went to him and told him plainly how little I thought of a man who would spend his cash elsewhere while owing me $75.00 and told him he must pay up on the spot.

"He did, and I supposed I had lost a customer forever. Imagine my surprise when he came in the next week and bought a fall suit. I told him I was surprised, and as I rang up the cash I asked him how it happened. He told me he was ashamed to come in and trade with me while he owed me $75.00!

"Well, believe me, I got busy collecting my $12,000 in old accounts and got them down to $2,000 in 60 days' time. From that time to this I have done an increasing business. I am as liberal as ever with credit, but when the first of the month comes around *I insist on the bill being paid.*"

Before leaving this question of the debtors' attitude toward your house and goods, give careful consideration to any causes of just complaint that he may have. If his complaint is fair and reasonable, be fair and reasonable in return; but do not be conciliatory and mild when you know that he is abusing your house and goods merely to avoid payment. It is just as foolish to allow your debtor to abuse you or your house or goods when collecting as it would be when you are making a sale, perhaps

even more so. *The weakness of a collector in admitting more than is true about the faults of his house or his goods spoils many a collection.* The collector must stand firm as a rock on the merits of his bill.

As an example of this, a business college in Cairo, Illinois, had a bill against a woman for her daughter's tuition. The woman was well able to pay, but the daughter had been a poor student and her mother in refusing to pay the bill alleged that the teaching had been poor. The principal of the school being a retiring sort of man, did not like to boast of his own teaching and simply said he had done the best he could. He was a poor collector.

A new principal came who determined to collect that bill. Calling upon the woman, he stated without any qualifications that her daughter had been *well taught.* He cited instance after instance of special things he learned had been done for the girl. He cited name after name of other students who had succeeded in their work and were occupying fine positions. He showed letters of commendation from business firms and from successful graduates. Then he produced the school records and showed the girl's low grades, her irregular attendance and specimens of work she had begun and not finished. Then he informed the woman that he was going to collect that bill, by ordinary means if possible, by law if necessary, and further told her that he knew exactly where she had a $3,000 investment and proposed to attach that property if the bill were not paid forthwith.

To avoid suit, the woman paid the bill, and the next week she sent another daughter to the school with cash in advance and a polite note explaining that she never had blamed the school for the first daughter's failure, but that this second daughter was more studious and would surely get along much better!

Of course, things don't work out this way always, but the truth remains that this is the honest, square way to meet such cases. The new principal was more than a teacher. He was a salesman, and he had studied every detail of his case in advance before he went out to collect that bill.

Personality of the Debtor

You have already studied this with relation to the sale. Now add such new facts as will refer to collections. Many buyers otherwise honest and frank have peculiar views about the collection of bills.

These peculiar views should be overcome before the credit is extended.

But when this is neglected, you must find out what they are and meet the issue squarely.

Explain that the collection of a bill is not raising a question as to the debtor's honesty. It is a question of your title to the money on the date promised.

Explain also that it is not a question of whether you need the money. It is simply that you are entitled to it.

Explain that his payment is not an accommodation or charity. *You* have extended the accommodation, on certain business terms, which should now be faithfully and punctiliously met by *him*.

A study of the details of your debtor's personality as outlined in previous lessons must be again made with reference to collections.

Factor No. 2—The Bill

Many a collection is not made because the collector is unfamiliar with the details of the bill. Study these carefully. It is not sufficient to know that the balance due is $75.00. You must know

1. The items
2. The payments previously made
3. The date of promised payment
4. The number of times previously presented
5. The security for the bill

We will comment only on the last point.

If you know the security for the bill, you can use that as a leverage in many cases. The security is:

1. Personal character of debtor. This is the best security. Address your debtor in full confidence when you know he is

honest. Expect payment; and let him gather the inference that his character is being tested by the way he meets his obligation.

2. Endorsement. It is to your debtor's advantage for the endorser not to know that you are having trouble collecting from him. The words, "We don't want to have to go to your endorser for this money," will often have an almost miraculous effect in securing prompt settlement.

3. The Debtor's Property. You should know what property he has and how it can be attached, if necessary. The collector must be fully informed on the laws of his state in regard to the advantages and dangers of enforced collection. This and many similar questions along the line of commercial law indicate the necessity for the salesman to study that subject.

Factor No. 3—The Collector

The study of yourself as presented in lessons 11 to 13 should be reviewed with especial reference to your improvement as a collector.

Just as the salesman who takes the order is the man who starts a profitable transaction on its course, so the salesman who collects the bill (for all collectors are salesmen in the true sense of salesmanship) is the man who brings that transaction to a profitable close. It is he who brings the buyer into personal touch with the house again at a critical time. By cleverness acquired through study, he can get his customer into the *habit of paying promptly;* and the high art of collecting is to train customers to pay bills when they mature, rather than after they are due.

To antagonize a customer when collecting a bill is as bad as to make an enemy of him any other time, often worse. To make a customer feel a response to your tact, courtesy, and gentlemanliness is to get a result for your house that is lasting. The qualities of civility, courtesy, honesty, agreeableness, truthfulness, and firmness are especially vital to the personality of a successful collector. Study to improve yourself in your Moral Qualities as outlined in lesson 13.

In general, as to the personality of the collector, it should contain a stronger element of firmness and the stern qualities than are necessary in selling goods. The dominant nature, if it combines with it tact, courtesy, and fairness, is characteristic of the efficient collector.

Exercise for Lesson 47

Write a one hundred-word argument for the collection of a bill for $30.00 for a suit of clothes. Payment has been refused on the plea that the suit was not satisfactory; yet the buyer is wearing the suit.

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LESSON 48

COLLECTIONS CLASSIFIED AS TO SIMPLICITY

Class 1—Very Easy. Requires Accuracy

To this class belong only those collections where neither amount nor due date are in dispute, and where the customer is so anxious to pay that he sends or brings remittance. This class requires only accuracy in making change and giving receipt.

Class 2—Easy. Requires System and Industry

Collections of this class are not in dispute and the debtor is willing to pay, but absent or careless. The great art herein is to devise a system that will reduce the number of calls. Such collections are often made by drawing a draft on the debtor, but care must be used in this, as many customers object to paying sight drafts. If you are not sure a draft will be welcomed, and wish to avoid offending the customer, write to him stating that you will draw a draft for the amount on a given date unless he desires to make another form of payment. This will give him an opportunity to state his objection if he has any.

Class 3—Medium. Requires Persistence

The debtor is honest and willing to pay but hard pressed financially. It is important to catch him at a time when he has money. The best plan in such a case is to discuss his situation with him, find out when he can pay, secure a note and sell it to a bank with the endorsement of your firm. If payment is not made your firm will have to make it good to the bank, but you have by this means secured for your firm an advantage in having a written acknowledgement of the indebtedness which can be discounted and which the debtor will hesitate to dishonor because of the injury to his credit when the discounting bank learns of his refusal to pay.

The best time to get a note is the *first* time, while the account is fresh. If you do not ask for it until the account is old, it is very hard to induce the debtor to sign a note.

Class 4—Hard. Requires Tact and Argument

The debtor is able to pay but unwilling on account of dissatisfaction with your goods or firm. This condition is best met by a reasonable compromise, if the claim is just, and by dignified insistence if it is unjust, as commented on in the previous lesson.

Class 5—Very Hard. Requires Strategy or Legal Action

Debtors in this class are either mistaken as to their responsibility or dishonest. In come cases strategy can be used to compel settlement. A large wholesale house to whom a perfectly just bill of $1,600.00 was due, rented a vacant store opposite their debtors, and shipped a large bill of goods there all ready to open up a competitive business. The debtor paid up and the "competitive" store was closed. It cost $250.00 to collect the bill, but in this special case was a safer and better way to collect than a suit would have been.

In many other cases, local credit associations serve the purpose of assisting in difficult collections, especially if the local associa-

tion runs a collection department and rates dealers as to their credit.

As a last resource, the law is resorted to, and here it becomes necessary to know the following:

1. Can a judgment be secured? Your case must be clear and unquestionable.
2. If a judgment is secured, can it be collected? Often a merchant is "judgment-proof" because he has nothing that can be attached.
3. If it is necessary to issue an attachment, will it pay financially to do so?
4. What are the legal penalties for attaching property, if you eventually fail to secure a judgment?
5. Who are the other creditors and what is the nature of their claims?

But these and many similar questions already referred to involve a study of commercial law, which cannot be treated here.

Psychology in Collecting

The first step in psychology is to study the mind and temperament of the person with whom you are dealing.

The basic elements of proper mind control for salesmanship, as discussed in Part II, should be reviewed at this time. A new element arises in collections, however, that is important. This is the element of *fear* that exists in the debtor's mind.

Generally speaking, debtors may be classified as to the kinds of fear that predominate in their minds.

1. The fear of moral decay
2. The fear of disgrace
3. The fear of failure
4. The fear of punishment

The fear of moral decay is the fear in the mind of the debtor that he will injure his own conscience and soul by dishonesty. A man of this kind seldom drifts into the lowest class of debtors. He is still fighting for self-respect, and a skillful collector will

play upon the unbroken strings of his soul by high moral arguments that will save him from the blight of his own conscience.

The fear of disgrace in the eyes of his neighbors is a very common and powerful fear. This is why the collector can use the services of a local Credit Association, or a threat of legal proceedings, with such great effect.

The fear of failure, if a claim is pushed at the proper time, will bring many dishonest debtors to their senses.

The fear of punishment will prevent many dishonest practices, such as violations of the Bulk Sales Law, a law now in many states prohibiting the purchase of entire stocks of merchandise before the proper legal steps have been taken for the protection of creditors. This prevents the old practice of selling by night and fleeing before morning, still common in states that have no Bulk Sales Law. The penitentiary is the last word in the protection of creditors.

In what may be called the art of implanting fear in the minds of dishonest debtors, the collector should remember the old maxim about fear: "Men fear what they cannot see clearly." The fear of ghosts, of hidden enemies, of undescribed horrors, is the fear that grips the mind of a man who would laugh at what he could see and touch and measure. A distinct statement of the details of what the collector proposes to do, will tend to lessen the fear of the dishonest debtor in many cases. For instance, the wholesale house that rented the store, in the illustration given above, would have failed in its purpose had it informed the debtor that its plan was to rent the vacant store near him for a month only, as a "bluff"! But by saying little and letting the debtor think a great deal, the purpose was accomplished.

The threat that inspires fear is powerful against the dishonest debtor, but of no value against an honest one, for fear is powerless against a clear conscience. So the collector must first be certain of the debtor's dishonesty, before using this weapon. He must use it seldom without the intention of following up the threat, for the moment he gets a reputation as a "bluffer," his usefulness is gone.

But in the psychology of collecting the use of hope is often more important than the employment of fear.

Hope is the opposite of fear, and much more powerful in its influence on human lives.

Consider hope in the same light that you have considered fear, as follows:

1. The hope for moral growth
2. The hope for public honor
3. The hope for success
4. The hope for reward

What a wonderful field for the collector is here, in learning how to prod the delinquent!

Urge upon the debtor the fact that he will grow and expand by establishing the practice of prompt settlement.

Show him the advantages in public esteem and honor of having the reputation that his word is as good as his bond.

Encourage him to believe that his success will be promoted by financial reliability. Take your pencil and show him how much cash he will save by taking advantage of discounts. Two per cent in 10 days is equivalent to 73 per cent a year. A reputation for prompt payment means the open sesame to the lowest prices that are offered, and many a man pays ten per cent higher on half of what he buys because dealers know they will have to wait for the money.

Then show him all the rewards of prompt payment-discounts, low prices, public honor, success! Here is a magnificent field for the skilled collector of accounts!

Planning Collection Visits

In planning collection visits, a special card is nearly always necessary in addition to a copy of the bill.

1. Arrange time for calls with care both as to date and hour chosen. If the debtor is a salaried man, select the date after he receives salary or wages. If a business house, the date when you believe its funds are at their highest.

2. When you secure a promise to pay, write it on the card and *let the debtor see you do it.* This is important, as it fixes the pledge in his mind.

3. Do not fail to keep appointments exactly on time.

Exercise for Lesson 48

A merchant owes your house $200.00. Ten days have passed and he is entitled to 2% if he pays today. Under the terms he must pay net 30 days, 2% ten days. Write an argument of fifty words to show him that it will be to his advantage to take the discount.

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LESSON 49

PROCESS OF A COLLECTION

The process of a collection is the same as the process of a sale.

1. Audience
2. Attention
3. Interest
4. Desire
5. Action

Gaining an Audience

Your problem is simple unless the debtor is dishonest.

You are entitled to an audience.

You must feel this and act accordingly, without giving offense.

If you cannot get an audience, ask for a date to be set. Give your errand dignity and importance. Never make the mistake of referring to it as a trifling matter.

Securing Attention

1. Be prompt in keeping your appointment if you have one.

2. If the debtor's mind is wandering, wait until you have his careful attention.

3. Go to the subject at once in a quiet way, as though fully expecting payment.

4. Impress the debtor that you are not asking a favor, but exercising a right.

Awakening Interest and Desire

Show the debtor a point to his advantage in paying promptly.

1. A discount if he is entitled to it.
2. Steady credit, if he has not been especially reliable before.
3. Your firm has receipted the bill in advance. This shows your idea of his reliability.

Compelling Action

In easy cases, the suggestive motion of starting to write him a receipt, or of taking your pocketbook from your pocket ready to put the cash or check into it, will start his mind operating favorably to you.

In more difficult cases, listen to his statement and meet his arguments, always keeping him off the question of hard times or objections and bringing him back to the question of *paying the bill.*

If he has agreed to pay on that special day, remind him of it, not apologetically, but with decision.

In asking for payment avoid the negative "Won't you pay it today, then?" And stick to positive forms of expression such as,

"I trust you will pay the bill today."

"Our treasurer is expecting the account to be settled today, and counting upon it."

"If you cannot pay it all today, we will appreciate it if you will pay (state a definite amount) on account."

As a final consideration, sometimes the collector, in case of extreme necessity, can actually help the debtor sell the goods, or a part of his general stock, to secure funds to pay the bill.

This is better in many ways than going to law, and often makes a life-long friend of a buyer who would otherwise have been an enemy.

Reasons for Prompt Collection

From Creditor's Standpoint

1. You need the money on the date it is due, and are entitled to it.
2. Debtor's postponement of payments costs you time and money for additional calls and letters.
3. Debtor's delinquency leads him to do business with your competitors, through his unwillingness to add further to his debt to you.
4. A large volume of accounts past due injures your credit with your bank.
5. A large volume of open accounts requires a larger capital to run your business.

From Debtor's Standpoint

1. You have rendered your services to the debtor in delivering goods on time. He should reciprocate.
2. The credit you extended was a benefit to the buyer which he should recognize by prompt payment.
3. Prompt payment will gain him future credit with you.
4. Prompt payment saves discounts.
5. A reputation for prompt pay will get him lowest prices from those who sell to him.
6. Bad credit will injure his standing in the community.
7. Slow payment will tend to give him more money in hand than he is entitled to, and thus lead to extravagance or carelessness.
8. In time of real financial difficulty, the man can weather the storm longest who has a reputation for years of prompt payment.

Summary of Collection Arguments

Before calling on the debtor examine this or a similar list of arguments, and *plan in advance* which one you will use.

1. Your bill is due today, as we agreed that credit would be given until January 15 for your convenience; and I have called to collect it.

2. We have served you to the best of our ability in every respect. The goods were as ordered. Our delivery was prompt. So we trust you will now meet your part of the agreement by paying with equal promptness.

3. You have a reputation for paying bills promptly, so we have counted positively on receiving your remittance today.

4. This is the last day of securing the 2 per cent discount, which amounts to $5.60.

5. Our goods have netted you a neat profit, as they were sold to you on a very narrow margin. For this reason it is absolutely necessary for us to keep our collections right up to the minute.

6. Since you have owed us this bill, Mr. Jones, we notice you have bought your other goods elsewhere. We feel that for your good as well as ours the account should now be settled promptly.

7. Our extension of credit to good customers until the first of the month is merely for their convenience in checking the goods and arranging to pay for them at a periodic time. We always expect the payment to come on the first, as that is the date that we, in turn, must pay our debts.

8. The fact that the goods we sold you have not yet been sold by you is something we can't help. They are selling elsewhere and I am sure that if you will advertise and display them attractively you will find them among your best sellers. We are entitled to our money on the date promised and expect prompt settlement.

9. In presenting this bill we are not raising any question as to your honesty. That is not the point. The point is that we need this money in our business today. (This is a violation of the

general rule not to say, "We need the money," but is good in certain cases.)

10. Mr. Jones, do you realize that the failure to pay bills promptly is probably costing you hundreds of dollars? I could give you case after case of merchants who have failed to get the lowest market price because of slow pay. Now, our firm has always given you the very lowest price and always will. We want you to show your appreciation by settling our bills first, on the day they are due.

11. Mr. Jones, I appreciate the fact that you say you would like to pay now to accommodate us, but we don't ask it as an accommodation. We ask it seriously and earnestly as a right to which we are entitled, even though it is necessary for you to borrow at the bank to pay us.

12. Since you cannot pay the bill of $125.00, we shall be satisfied if you will pay us $75.00 today and the balance in 30 days.

13. If you can't raise the cash today, it will be satisfactory if you will give us your 60-day note. We can then cash the note and secure the funds we need.

14. We shall regret to have to take such action, but if this bill is not paid by the fifteenth we shall have to present it for payment to Mr. Smith, who went your security for the amount.

15. If this bill is not paid by the first of the month, we shall have to take action against you, either by attachment or suit, as our attorneys decide. But we don't want to do anything that will injure your local trade except as a last resort.

16. Mr. Jones, we don't want to bring disgrace on you by collection proceedings that are sure to become public. Help us to avoid this by paying today.

17. You ought to pay this bill now if for no other reason than that it will make you feel better towards us. You are beginning actually to dislike us for having done you a favor, but if you will pay now, it will not be long before you see the matter in its true light, and your heart will get right toward us again.

18. Mr. Smith, I see that you need a plain, straight talk on

credit. I am not a public lecturer, but I want to tell you that you will be surprised at the result if you will go right to some banker, arrange for a loan, and pay all your outstanding accounts. You will save discounts; you will get best terms and prices from all houses; you will create confidence in your business standing all through the community; you will feel better physically and mentally; you will always know exactly where you stand financially; and in your own heart you will feel the reward of the man who is doing the square thing, for that is what you are not doing when you keep creditors waiting for money that is rightfully theirs. Now, this is plain talk, but I know you are the kind of man who will listen to it and consider. All it will cost you is a little interest and you will save that in cash many times over.

Student's Exercise for Lesson 49

Smith owes you $60.00, which he says he can't pay for two or three months. Write an argument of not over one hundred words, asking him to give you his note at 6% for 90 days, and state as the reason that your firm desires to get the account in such shape that it can borrow money on the paper.

PART VII
SALES PROJECTS

LESSON 50

You have studied the *factors* of a sale and the *process* of a sale. The remainder of these lessons will be devoted almost entirely to the study of *Sales Projects.* The general principles you have learned are now to be illustrated by *complete sales plans to be studied in their proper relation to the entire industry of which they are a part.*

Before any sales project is presented, however, the Sales Manual must be studied with great care, for a Sales Manual is a printed statement of all the facts necessary to a sales project.

The Sales Manual

A sales manual, as you learned in Lesson 1, is a book of information and instruction issued by business organizations to their salesmen. You also learned that most large business houses issue sales manuals.

Back of the publication of every sales manual is the big idea that when salesmen have learned general principles (as you have learned them from this book), they must be taught *how to sell a particular item.* The good sales manual covers every point necessary for the salesman to know in connection with the goods he sells, the house he works for and the industry or industries in which his house is engaged, besides the necessary specific selling points and arguments. It has so many purposes that to name them is a lengthy process, but valuable. Some of them are:

a. To give the salesman necessary information.

b. To take from the salesman the excuse "I didn't know the rule or custom of the house."
c. To inspire the salesman to greater sales effort.
d. To "standardize" the efforts of salesmen.
e. To avoid unnecessary correspondence.
f. To prevent contradictions in instructions given by the house.
g. To make delay due to correspondence unnecessary.

Nearly all sales manuals contain full descriptions of the goods or services for sale, complete selling arguments, and instructions for procedure. When a house has several dozen, or several hundred, salesmen, it cannot afford to give each man individual instruction and directions. Even salesmanship classes for employees, which are common, cannot be expected to give every detail to each salesman. The sales manual, however, can contain everything, or nearly everything, that is necessary. It is usually indexed.

Some manuals include many other items in addition to descriptions of goods, selling arguments, and instruction for procedure. Among these items are: The history of the organization; its present financial standing; descriptions of competitive lines; records of business done in the various salesmen's territories, etc. The scope of such books varies widely. Some firms merely send their salesmen indexed price-sheets, while others include every variety of topic, even to essays on the necessity of honesty, industry, and other virtues.

Specimen Manual

As a specimen of the sales manual at its best, we present for close study and discussion, the Sales Manual of the Baker-Vawter Company.

The form of the Baker-Vawter Manual, is, of course, loose-leaf, as nearly all sales manuals should be. There are about 125 pages. It is divided into nine sections treating nine main topics. These sections are designated by index tabs. The pages are numbered separately for each section, beginning in each case with

the number one. When new pages are inserted and old ones removed, the new ones may be placed exactly where they belong. Old instructions, changed, are removed from the book entirely. The accompanying illustration shows how easy it is for the salesman to turn to the section he needs to study.

The Baker-Vawter Company manufactures loose-leaf binders and supplies, and steel filing equipment. It sells these items, and originates and installs the systems necessary for their operation. This last-named service is the most important part of the Baker-Vawter business. The main offices of the company are located at Benton Harbor, Michigan; with manufacturing plants at Benton Harbor, Michigan; Holyoke, Mass.; Kansas City, Mo., and San Francisco, Calif., and sales offices in all the large cities of the United States. It employs between 200 and 300 salesmen to each of whom is given a copy of the Sales Manual, numbered and registered, for the safe-keeping of which he is responsible. With one or two exceptions (salesmen who are "natural geniuses" incapable of working in accordance with anyone else's plans) this Manual is the salesman's Bible, and the success of the salesman is largely determined by his use of it.

Some parts of the Baker-Vawter Manual are confidential, but, by permission, we reproduce herewith a complete outline of the Manual's contents, and some of its actual material which is not confidential. The Baker-Vawter Manual has been selected for this purpose, after careful comparison with many others, because of its unusual excellence both in material and in form. It is addressed to the salesman. An outline of its contents follows. The value of this outline, to you as a student, lies in its completeness. Study it until you could, if desired, write an outline like it for another business.

Contents

Introduction. Genetal statement of purpose of Manual.

I. THE COMPANY

History
Policy of the Company
Possibilities of the business

II. THE PRODUCT

For Banks
For Commercial Houses
For all other Businesses
Raw Materials—
Paper
Ink
Binder Board
Leather
Steel
Finishing Materials

III. YOU

Selecting good candidates for the Sales Class
"Help Your Company Grow," is the first appeal here
Your personal development
"Keep growing by constant study," is the second appeal
General rules of scientific salesmanship
Personal qualities that make success
Mental steps in a sale
Utilization of the five senses
How to plan a campaign
Block system of making calls
Follow-up system of repeat calls

IV. YOUR TERRITORY

A definite plan for working it

V. YOUR SAMPLES

What to carry, and how
Filing System for Baker-Vawter Sales Office
Baker-Vawter forms for Salesmen's Use
Correspondence with customers
Rules governing the Salesman's ordering of samples

VI. RECORDS AND REPORTS

Purpose of sales expenses
Allowable items
Forms of expense accounts
How to handle orders
Preparing copy
Salesman must prepare copy except for stock forms
Salesman's Records
The careful attention to this in the Manual shows the importance attached to it. It is one of the largest sections
Reports
Correspondence with the house

VII. ADVERTISING

Showing the salesman what the house is doing for him and itself

VIII. HOW TO SELL

Model Selling Talk
Selling tactics
Standard demonstrations
Objections answered
Process of a sale
Practical instructions along lines scientifically discussed in Section 4

IX. SYSTEMS AND SERVICE

Practical application to sales, of general information given in Section 3
a—Banks
b—Commercial Houses
c—General Filing
d—Machine Bookkeeping

After you have studied the above outline, consider the three points following:

1. The salesman is put in touch with the entire business except costs and profits, and processes of manufacture, and is required to study the facts presented. How far this is carried will be shown in the next lesson.

2. The permanent value of the salesman's work is safeguarded by the company by complete records. If a salesman quits or is discharged, his work does not perish with him. It is preserved for his successor. The company does not lose the value of his personal knowledge of his customers and of his territory. This justifies it in making expenditures on that territory *during the salesman's term of employment,* which it could not afford to do if the salesman's records had no future value. This is one of the reasons why it can afford *to lose money for a short time* on a new salesman. Thus *the salesman gets a value,* literally *at the time,* for the act (that of keeping records for the future), even though this act has only a future value. If business is worth doing it is worth recording; and the same rule must apply to sales efforts that do *not* result in an order as to sales. Certain facts discovered when no order is received, are of permanent value to the firm that keeps good records.

3. Salesmen are required before proceeding with the so-called "original methods" to know what the general sales manager thinks are the best methods. Many salesmen confuse originality with ignorance—afraid that if they study the methods of others they will lose their own originality. This is not true. The student who knows best the plans of others is most likely to be original himself. *Originality is founded on education.* The great inventors are scientists who first learn what the rest of the world can teach them, and then press farther. The nonsense about "native genius" being "spoiled by education" is the worst nonsense there is about salesmanship or any other science.

The same is true of business systems. When a great organization has spent a generation systematizing its work, the salesman or other employe who tries to avoid labor by failing to keep up his end of the system *injures himself* and often does more work in the long run. The house wants to make money, as the salesman does. It will not ask for system work to be done that will not *produce business* ultimately. It is positively sickening to hear some light-weight salesman who has had a few months of un-

successful service say: "These reports are unnecessary. The boss is a fool." Of course, the house sometimes makes mistakes —but not often. It has the same objects as the salesman—fair bargains—benefits to both parties—volumes of sales—no lost motion—largest possible profits—permanent success. The salesman who advances must study his firm's methods and follow them.

Student's Exercise for Lesson 50

Select any business with which you are familiar, preferably the business you expect some day to enter, or establish, if that business employs salesmen or should employ them. Write an outline of contents of a Salesman's Manual, similar to the one presented in this Lesson. Do not follow the model too closely. Change it to suit your own ideas of the nature of the business you have selected.

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LESSON 51

SECTIONS OF THE SALES MANUAL IN DETAIL

What follows in small type is a verbatim copy of pages 4 and 5 of Section I of the Baker-Vawter Sales Manual outlined in the previous lesson. After reading each section of small type answer the questions following it.

Plant Expansion

Plant established at Van Buren Street, Chicago 1886. Moved to Marianna Street 1890

Plant built at Marianna Street, Chicago 1890. Moved to Benton Harbor 1905

Plant established at Kokomo, Ind., 1898. Discontinued 1902

Plant H established at Holyoke, Mass., 1899. Built our own building 1910
Plant A established at Atchison, Kansas 1900. Discontinued 1914
Plant B established at Benton Harbor 1903
Plant B enlarge 1904-1908
Plant M established at Benton Harbor 1904
Plant M enlarged 1898-1909-1910-1917
General Office moved from Chicago to Benton Harbor 1912
General Sales Office moved from Chicago to Benton Harbor 1913
Paper Warehouse built 1915
Administration Building built 1915
Plant F established Benton Harbor 1917
Plant W established San Francisco, Calif., 1918
Plant X and L established Benton Harbor 1919
Plant K established at Kansas City, Mo., 1920

Why is it important for the salesman to know these facts about the expansion of the business? Does he need the confidence in his house that this will give him? Will any of his customers wish to know these facts? To what extent will they be interested? What impression will the salesman give if he knows these things? If he does not?

If the business has decreased in size should the salesman know it? Should he tell his customer? When should he? When should he not?

Why should the company tell these facts to its salesmen? What would you think of a company that would not?

Financial Growth

Incorporated	1888	$ 10,000
Reincorporated	1895	100,000
Reorganized	1913	800,000
Reincorporated	1916	1,500,000
Reorganized	1920	3,000,000

Has growth been rapid or slow? Do you know of cases of more rapid growth? What was the period of slowest growth? Why?

Companies Originating in Baker-Vawter Company Now Independent Concerns

Two large business institutions were originally a part of the Baker-Vawter Company.

Wolf & Company, one of the large accounting firms in the United States originated in the System Department and was originally controlled by Baker-Vawter Company.

The Commercial Stationery and Loose-Leaf Company of Chicago, a retail concern, was formerly owned and operated by Baker-Vawter Company.

Why do you suppose these firms were separated from the parent company? Name at least three possible reasons. What is the natural result of absorbing concerns that manufacture similar lines, and getting rid of departments of your own business that handle lines dissimilar to your main line? Is this a good or a bad policy?

Developing the Line

The Baker-Vawter Company in its infancy had a very small line. Our first salesmen had to make good on a few articles. Order blanks, holders, and No. 31 Binders were the only items they had to sell. The loose-leaf idea was revolutionary. It had to be explained. A market had to be created. The time saving features of the single order blank appealed to the progressive American business man.

Then, as now, service played an important part in the Baker-Vawter selling. The big outstanding fact in the achievement of the Baker-Vawter salesmen of the early days is that line. Today we can furnish almost anything in the loose-leaf and vertical filing lines. Our development has been with a process of evolution. We have kept pace with the progress of mechanical office devices and been able to supply the business needs of our country. In fact our products are sold all over the world.

Is it still difficult to sell loose-leaf devices? If so, to whom? What do you suppose were the early difficulties? Why should a commercial student be familiar with loose-leaf devices?

Some of the more important items in our line were first marketed as follows:

Order Blanks in 1888
Holders in 1888
No. 31 Binders in 1888

The No. 31 Binder was the first practical loose-leaf binder invented It is as good today as when it was first put on the market.

Shipping Receipts 1890

The Baker-Vawter shipping receipt was used in place of a bill-of-lading. It is now obsolete because of the uniform bills-of-lading universally used.

No. 41 Binder 1891

The No. 41 Binder was the forerunner of our new No. 473.

What general fact is true of all the items so far mentioned? Why did the sale of order blanks, and shipping receipts, precede the sale of loose-leaf ledgers? Give at least two reasons.

The First Loose-Leaf Ledger in 1894

This was the first loose-leaf ledger offered for sale by any manufacturer. For a time its sale was slow. It was a new thing. Its practicability, its safety and its legality were questioned. Business men hesitated to adopt it even though they could see its advantages. Baker-Vawter pioneer salesmen had less competition but more prejudice to overcome. A new era had arrived, however, and the invention of the loose-leaf ledger ushered that era in. The success of the typewriter and the adding machine are largely due to the loose-leaf principle which makes possible the use of these labor saving devices in so many ways. Mr. Vawter's name should rank with that of Burrough's and other inventors whose work has lessened the labor and improved the condition of his fellow men.

What legal objections do you think could have been made to loose-leaf ledger? Do you think they were valid? If not, why? State what you think are the advantages of the loose-leaf system, naming at least three.

Bill and Charge System.....1895
Sectional Post Binder.....1897
The Crimped Leaf 1899
No. 61 (CX39) Ledger Binder.....1900
Nos. 62-63 Ledger Binders.....1907
Steel Vertical Files.....1908
Supplies for Vertical Files.....1908
Storage Units 1913
Binder Racks 1914
65 Machine Bookkeeping Binder.....1914
Posting Trays 1915

2a23 Cabinet 1916
Cashier's Friend 1920
Tray Tables 1920
66 to 69 Ledger Binders.....1921

The Baker-Vawter Company has always led in new ideas on the subjects of accounting and filing. It has also kept abreast of the times in its attitude towards its employees.

Why was it necessary, in your opinion, for this company to go into the business of manufacturing vertical files? Give at least two reasons.

What are the advantages of a steel file over a wooden file?

In order to create good will and disseminate information of interest among employees and salesmen it publishes two house organs, "The Baker-Vawter Journal" and "Partners." "The Baker-Vawter Journal" is published entirely in the interests of the salesmen. It has been published continually since the year 1897 and is now one of the oldest Sales Journals in America. "Partners" is an employee's magazine published entirely in their interests.

The Employment Department sponsors an Athletic Association. Through it, its members thoroughly enjoy the clean sports. They play baseball, golf, tennis, indoor-outdoor baseball; they swim, and they bowl.

The "Thespians" is an organization whose object is to promote and maintain closer bonds of fellowship and true partnership among employees, and to study and rehearse dramatic or musical productions.

Then, there is the Baker-Vawter Protective Association, the object of which is to provide financial relief and benefit for its members in case of sickness, injury, or disability which may unfit them for their daily labor, while in the employe of the Baker-Vawter Company, and to provide a funeral benefit in case of death.

Why should the Company be interested in outdoor exercise for its employees? Why should the Protective Association have been formed?

Mention should be made, too, of the Vacation Club, which is really a Savings Club for factory employees. Employees deposit regularly a certain sum in the vacation savings fund which is handled through a local bank by means of a Savings Coupon Book.

An employee of the factory can acquire as many of these books as may be desired, but cannot secure from the Company more than a certain

amount towards a vacation. The amount paid by the Company depends on the amount saved by the employee and his weekly wage.

An employee in group one can secure $9.00 from the Company by saving $11.00. In group two $12.00 is the amount secured by saving $16.50. In group three $15.00 is paid to those who save $22.50. In group four $18.00 is the reward for saving $27.50.

The savings period runs for eleven months. The Company pays those who are entitled to a reward at the end of the Savings Period.

The object is to provide those employees who are frugal with more money for the annual vacation when the factories are closed for a week.

Why should the Company care whether or not its employees save money? Would it not be better to encourage them to spend money and be constantly dependent? Why not?

Time and money are not spared to bring about safe, sanitary, and hygienic practices in the Baker-Vawter Company. An active Safety Committee is ever at work, and an Industrial Nurse is employed. Fully equipped First Aid Rooms are provided, and First Aid workers are trained. Home visiting is conscientiously done, and the most careful attention is given to every ailment, whether accident or sickness.

One of the aims of the Company is to help its employees save part of their earnings. From time to time its employees are permitted to buy stock on the partial payment basis. Out of its some 300 stockholders approximately 250 are connected with the Company in some capacity.

Analyze the advantages and the disadvantages of having employees as stockholders in the company. To what extent should this tendency be encouraged? If none were allowed to hold stock in an organization except those employed by it, what would be the result? If all employees were required to buy stock what would be the result? Would you as a salesman desire to buy stock in your company? Always?

Baker-Vawter Company is committed to the ideal of quality and service. Service not alone to its customers but to its employees and stockholders. Anything that injures one, injures all. If this great organization is to keep its leadership as a potent influence in the betterment of business methods it must preserve its high ideals of quality, service, and the square deal.

The above sections of the Company's Manual give the reader so intimate a knowledge of the Baker-Vawter Company that he

feels he really knows them. They inspire confidence. There are 125 more pages like them. They fairly astonish the reader with a sense of the importance and reliability of the firm. Here is another passage of the same kind, from this Manual. Read it carefully, trying to analyze the importance of such statements in inspiring the salesman.

A Million Prospects

In round figures there are 1,240,000 commercial houses, banks, institutions, hotels, etc., in this country that can use Baker-Vawter products to advantage. We had boasted of 56,000 customers sold in two years—a wonderful following—but only a start.

Intensive Cultivation vs. Large Area Per Man

As to our distribution over the country, the figures showed amazing inequalities. The best showed something of our possibilities; the poorer ones indicated neglected opportunities.

Town	Population	Sales for a Year	Sales per Capita
A	1,364,505	$12,885.40	.0078
B	564,890	46,633.09	.0873
C	449,500	11,451.67	.0244
D	428,650	25,588.00	.0570
E	282,000	22,867.22	.0810
F	254,960	10,794.32	.0423
G	191,500	9,832.00	.0513
H	150,500	915.42	.0060
I	144,500	2,036.00	.0410
J	143,240	10,277.00	.0717
K	150,000	3,508.00	.0233
L	114,000	11,976.00	.1050
M	100,500	167.45	.0017
N	30,840	1,204.54	.0390
O	29,460	2,526.90	.0858
P	17,000	2,738.00	.1610
Q	20,560	630.82	.0306
R	22,000	216.92	.0098
S	20,500	945.91	.0461
T	2,600	1,449.00	.5572
U	4,000	196.03	.0490

Town	Population	Sales for a Year	Sales per Capita
V	4,200	$38.20	.0091
W	1,611	1,172.00	.7325
X	21,200	245.93	.0120
Y	87,000	6,404.00	.0736
Z	85,000	4,111.78	.0483
AA	63,700	6,603.40	.1036
BB	63,000	2,466.09	.0391
CC	42,000	2,456.90	.0584
DD	700	149.00	.2128
EE	25,600	116.84	.0045
FF	12,000	725.80	.0604

The more these figures are studied the more apparent it becomes that production is a matter of cultivation, not geography.

Then when we looked into the matter of production by lines of business, we found that the same inequalities existed. In one section our retail business would assume a proportion somewhat in keeping with the ratio of retailers to banks or to wholesalers. In another section of like nature there would be no retailer business.

Possibilities vs. Results

The following analysis shows our sales activity in a fair provincial territory:

Possibilities		We Sell	Amt. Sold in One Year
General Stores	1,138	12	$ 900.00
Retail Groceries	1,113	10	450.00
Wholesale Groceries	271	28	3,200.00
Retail Dry Goods	211	5	420.00
Retail Drugs	432	5	190.00
Retail Furniture	282	1	75.00
Retail Lumber	434	31	1,225.00
Manufacturers (all)	848	7	2,325.00
Retail Hardware	293	18	950.00
Retail Clothes	191	2	75.00
Hotels	65	3	190.00
Garages	248	4	425.00
Banks	251	18	828.10
Total	5,777	144	$11,253.10

One hundred and forty-four firms sold out of a possible fifty-seven hundred and seventy-seven, shows a 2.4 percent sales efficiency.

Or, figuring in another way, we found that the value in terms of Baker-Vawter sales in a year of various lines of business showed the same variations: A retailer in Illinois was worth 20c; in Indiana, 17c; in Nebraska, 9c; in Iowa, 27c; in North Carolina, 7c; in Maine, 81c; in New York, 16c; in Massachusetts, 35c; and in Arizona, $4.69.

Wholesalers show a similar variation—Illinois, $6.47; Iowa, $15.65; New York, $5.93; Massachusetts, $8.87; Alabama, $18.86; Tennessee, $24.88.

Banks prove no exception to the rule—Florida, $40.26; Minnesota, $7.37; Pennsylvania, $26,37; Nebraska, $6.67; Wisconsin, $22.62; Arizona, $68.65.

Manufacturers were worth 35c in Virginia; $3.39 in Delaware, and $1.50 in Oklahoma.

Note how widely even contiguous states differ. Conditions are much the same and yet the results are so unrelated.

Naturally we all ask, what is the answer? Whose fault is it? How can it be remedied?

Think of the possibilities of a line with a million and a quarter possible customers—think of that territory with 5,777 possible customers and only 144 real ones—then imagine the courage of a big house, and the leader in its line, saying these things to its salesmen!

And after that, remember: What is true of a line like loose-leaf accounting forms and binding devices, steel filing equipment and supplies, of which there are comparatively few manufacturers, is true of every other meritorious line in the world. Modern transportation and advertising have made the world the field of nearly every man with a big idea. The field of a publishing house is wherever the language is spoken; the field of a stove manufacturer of food is wherever people eat! Men are limited only by their lack of power. Education is the creator of power. The salesmen's means of education in his special line is the salesmanship text and the sales manual.

Student's Exercise for Lesson 51

After carefully studying this lesson and reviewing Lesson 40, make a list of ten articles that you think have the most universal market, excluding food, clothing, and building materials, and publications of all sorts.

CHART TWENTY

School Paper Project

MAJOR PRELIMINARY REQUIREMENTS
- Commercial Law
- Accounting
- English Language
- News Value
- Literature

Before you begin the publication of a school paper you must understand certain fundamentals of these subjects.

MINOR PRELIMINARY REQUIREMENTS
- Public Speaking
- Psychology of Handling Crowds
- Parliamentary Rules

If one of the means for promoting this project is a public meeting, you must study these subjects.

ACTIVE MANAGEMENT REQUIREMENTS
- Business Organization and Management
  - Business Manager
  - Advertising Manager
  - Circulation Manager
- Editorial Duties
  - Editor-in-Chief
  - Reporters
  - Literary Editors

These subjects must each be studied in connection with:

a—General policy for handling established business.

b—Special means such as contests, campaigns, and other new methods for increasing business.

FIRST SUBSCRIPTION AND ADVERTISEMENT CAMPAIGN

1. Division and Assignment of Territory (or Lists of Names) Among Salesmen
2. Adopting of Plans to Be Studied by All Salesmen
3. Study of Arguments
   - a—To secure attention
   - b—To arouse interest
   - c—To awaken desire
   - d—To compel action
   - e—Answers to objections
4. Model Selling Talk
5. Specific Details of Campaign
   - a—Dates for its beginning and end
   - b—Form of blanks for subscriptions and advertisements
   - c—Form of records and methods of checking them
   - d—Arrangement for regular meetings of salesmen with circulation manager and advertising manager

This is the main feature of the project, around which the other features gather.

LESSON 52

FIRST SALES PROJECT—A SCHOOL PAPER

A sales project, as you have learned, is a plan and study of all the various lines of work related to a sales campaign.

Among these lines of work which have the closest relation to salesmanship are:

Business Organization—The planning of a business, and
Business Management—The execution of the plan; also

Marketing the Product—Which includes
Salesmanship—and
Business Correspondence—which are based on
Business English—and are closely allied to
Advertising—Besides these topics, one must know
Commercial Law—to prevent errors,
Commercial Geography—to understand markets and routing,
Accounting—to analyze the condition of the business, and
Special Manufacturing and Production Processes Necessary in the Business.

Many of these lines of study are as important as salesmanship itself. We can only study here, however, those parts of them that are closely related to salesmanship. For example, we should study only that part of Commercial Geography that has a bearing on the possibilities for production and sale of the goods handled, and on the salesman's territory and routing; but these parts of the subject must be studied with great care. The same is true of similar parts of the subjects of advertising, business organization, and all other subjects listed above, beside many not listed. *Nearly every subject in the world has a relation of some sort to this great subject of salesmanship.*

Only those parts of subjects closely related to salesmanship will be studied in the projects that follow.

We shall take for our first illustration an enterprise common to schools of all kinds—a student's paper. This is a *simple* project, but must be analyzed just as carefully as the more difficult projects that follow.

Establishing a Student's Paper

Let us suppose that there is no paper or magazine published by the school you attend. Some of the students believe the students and friends of the school would support such an enterprise, and wish to establish it.

We will first consider the subject under the following main divisions:

1—The establishing of the paper.
2—Growth of the paper.
3—Financial security.

Remember as you study these topics that they apply, in general, to any line of business in the world, and that all three considerations are vital. Some businesses never get established. Some never grow. Some that have done both, fail because they are insecure.

1—Establishing the Paper

PRELIMINARY STUDY OF THE FIELD: As no sensible business man would go into any business without a preliminary survey of the field, so it is necessary for you, before establishing this paper, to investigate a large number of details, as follows:

Financial Questions

How many students are there in your school?

How many ought to be expected to purchase a paper when issued?

At what price would the paper have to be sold in order to reach the majority of the students?

If the paper contained necessary announcements of school work, could all students be required to purchase it as a part of their text-book expense?

Would it be advisable to make such a requirement even if it would help in this way?

How many former students of the institution could be expected to subscribe?

How many friends of the school would subscribe?

What total subscription list could be expected?

With a subscription list of the size you have in prospect, how many advertisers could be expected to buy space?

Are you counting upon advertisers taking space because they are friends of the institution, or would they take it on the merit of the goods?

How much would they be willing to pay for space?

What is the total you could expect from advertising and from subscriptions?

Would this pay for the publication of the magazine?

If it would not, is there anyone willing to make up the deficit?

If no deficit is anticipated, how much profit could be made?

Literary Questions

All the above are financial questions that have to do with circulation and advertising; but how about the preparation of the copy? Ask yourself:

Are the students capable of doing the necessary writing?

Can they be depended upon to do it?

What inducements can be offered them to do this work?

What would be the educational advantages of such a publication?

You have to consider very carefully whether the students would start enthusiastically into the enterprise and abandon it after the novelty had worn off. Having undertaken the publication, you will be bound in honor, as well as by law, to deliver copies for the full length of time for which subscriptions are made. Consider at this point, therefore, not only whether the particular group of students at present in school would be willing to start such a paper and capable of carrying it on, but also the broader question whether students under all conditions and at all times will be appealed to by this project. Fortunately, for school publications, this is usually the case. Students always like to do this work and find it valuable training and a pleasureable exercise of their literary powers. Hundreds of excellent and well-known writers got their first start by publishing or writing for school papers.

Lord Northcliffe, perhaps the greatest publisher in the world today, owner of the *London Times* and more than a hundred

other publications, got his start publishing a school magazine at the age of fifteen. Edison, when he was a newsboy on a train, published a paper.

Details of Preliminary Survey

The importance of a preliminary preparation for a business project is well illustrated by an event in Lord Northcliffe's life. After he was worth millions, and had a world-wide reputation, he started a newspaper called *The Daily Mail,* and published this newspaper every day for three months before a single copy of it was sold to the public. Only a few of each issue were printed, but they were complete in every detail. He was determined to get his paper running in perfect condition and to find out all about his field before he endeavored to sell the paper to the public.

The details of this preliminary study of the field will appear more clearly as we proceed with the description of what must be done to get the paper established successfully.

OWNERSHIP may be in:

1—The School.
2—A Corporation.
3—An Individual.

Consider and be prepared to discuss the advantages and disadvantages of each.

OWNERSHIP implies:

1—Complete control, subject to contracts giving temporary control to others.
2—Responsibility for debts.
3—Legal right to profits.
4—Ultimate necessity of doing all work not done by others.

It is not possible to go into all the details of ownership in its legal phases at this time; yet you must realize that in this project, as in every other business project, the question of ownership is fundamental, and the study of this phase of commercial law necessary.

1—*Complete Control.* Complete control means, of course, all the control the owner wishes to exercise. The owner may, and in this case probably will, delegate the actual management to another, or to others, since in the nature of things, the school should own the publication, because the school is permanent and the students temporary. Some school magazines are owned by students, or by corporations formed among students; but while this is satisfactory at first, it becomes unsatisfactory as soon as any student, graduating, disposes of his interest.

2 and 3—*Responsibility for debts and the right to profits.* These topics bring in the necessity of accounting and auditing, the details of which will be discussed later. It is sufficient to note here that accounting must be added to commercial law, as one of the business requirements in this project.

4—*Obligation to Work.* No school would become responsible for a paper if it did not know its students were sufficiently interested to do the work, and that the students of the future would carry it on. Nevertheless the school, as owner, must have one of its officers not only supervise the work as an owner would, but be prepared to do anything left undone by others; for this publication, to succeed, must be regular in its date of issue, consistent in its literary character, and honest with its advertisers and subscribers, just like any other paper. The obligation of the owner to actually prepare copy for the paper, when necessary, makes literary ability a third requirement of the owner in this case.

We have seen that a knowledge of commercial law, accounting and literature are among those studies necessary in this project. We will now take each up more fully.

Commercial Law

As applying to the establishment of this paper, it has been already suggested that the financial responsibility of the owner, or owners, of the paper must be thoroughly understood. There are other legal relations that are of equal importance. One is the responsibility of the owner to the subscribers, who must

receive the copies for which they subscribe. Another is the responsibility of the owner, of the editor, and of the writer for libelous items published. Another is the procedure necessary to secure second class mailing privileges; first, by the building up a bona-fide subscription list; and second by the proper application the post office. Last, but not least, come the liabilities for printing, paper bills, etc., for which some person or persons must be responsible. Of course, all these items are small in the case of a college paper, but if you are to get the full benefit of this study, you must grant to these items the same importance as though the amounts involved, or the danger incurred, were greater.

We will later take up the study of business projects of greater financial size.

Accounting

Bad accounting is a common fault in newspaper offices. This is especially true with regard to small newspapers and magazines. Your accounting system should be simple but perfect, and the responsibility for receipts and payments should be in the hands of a single individual who should be bonded.

A magazine or paper should set aside a reserve for the unexpired subscriptions of the readers. Suppose you are getting out a monthly paper that sells for a dollar a year, and costs you five cents per copy. You receive in January one hundred subscriptions, and at the time you receive your dollar you deliver one paper and still owe eleven copies to the subscriber. These will cost you five cents each, or fifty-five cents. This fifty-five cents should be set aside at the end of the month to guarantee the future delivery of the undelivered copies of the paper. Failure to do this has wrecked many large publications.

For example, a monthly magazine in Peoria, Illinois, started with a subscription list of 1,200 at the price of 50c each. The owner spent the $600.00; added another 1,000 subscribers; spent that $500.00 in addition to all the receipts from advertisers; added another 1,000 subscribers the next month; spent that, but

still continued to exist *by increasing the circulation.* The owner thought he was doing a very clever thing in thus increasing the circulation to cover current expenses, and did not reserve any part of his receipts. He finally reached a circulation of 12,000, could get no more subscribers, and, finding his advertisers not giving him sufficient revenue to support the magazine, was obliged to discontinue and thus cause a loss to 12,000 subscribers who had relied upon his ability to deliver the publication.

The odd fact about this incident is that the owner of the magazine was ignorant of the breakers ahead, thinking that his magazine was an assured success simply because he continued to increase his circulation up to a certain point and was able to pay his bills from month to month.

This is an illustration of one of the special points in accounting that must be considered by a magazine, that does not have to be considered by all other kinds of business concerns.

Literature

The connection between this branch of study and the publishing of a paper is too evident to need much comment. It should be observed, however, that the literary merit that is desired must be of the particular sort that will appeal to the prospective reader. General literary ability no matter how great will not fill the bill. It must be a *particular* ability in this case to present the affairs of the college and news about the individual students, in a way that will be attractive to those who will receive the paper. It requires an entirely different sort of literary ability to run a magazine from what is required to edit a newspaper, and both differ widely from what is required in the preparation of a text book.

Student's Exercise for Lesson 52

Write an argument of not over three hundred words for or against the establishment of a paper in your school, and presenting in this argument:

1—The number of students in the school

2—The number of those who could be expected to purchase the paper

3—The number of former students, and friends of the school who would subscribe
4—The number of advertisers who could be expected to buy space, and why
5—The names of students capable of handling

a—The Editorial Department
b—The News Department
c—The Business Department

1—Management
2—Advertising
3—Circulation

6—The chances for financial success
7—The educational and other advantages to the students and to the school

LESSON 53

THE SCHOOL PAPER PROJECT—(Continued)

Having now decided tentatively (that is, subject to further investigation) to establish a school paper, your next step is to call a meeting of those interested in forming the real organization. This involves:

Public Speaking

Getting up a successful meeting is not a simple or easy matter. A mere notice posted on a bulletin board will not do. You must secure voluntary speakers to present the matter to all the students. This calls for real salesmanship and for leadership, which is a form of the same thing. The speakers must be selected for their ability and popularity. The facts must be marshalled in their order and certain topics assigned to each speaker so that all topics of interest will be included, and a certain fixed time must be allotted to each speaker.

Psychology of Handling Crowds

Those in the audience who are sympathetic with the movement, must be instructed in advance to lead the applause. Some one, or more, must be appointed in advance to see to the ventilation of the room, to keep quiet those in the rear, to guard against unnecessary noises from the outside, to see that the members of the audience fill up the front seats, and the dozens of other details that go to make up an orderly and enthusiastically organized meeting.

Billy Sunday has the reputation of being the most successful speaker of his type who ever lived. All those who are acquainted with his work know that weeks and months of preparation for his meetings have always been insisted upon. His advance agent, preceding him to a place where he is to hold his meetings, sees to it that the proper type of room for clear speaking is selected. If that type of room is not available he has a special tabernacle built for the purpose. Everyone in the audience must hear every word he says. Sawdust is spread on the floor to prevent the noise of walking and every precaution is taken to prevent other unnecessary noises. The whole program is arranged as carefully as an act in a play, and every possible disturbing feature is eliminated in advance. This is what must be done in the case of your meeting.

From all the above it may be seen that a new subject has been added to the list of studies valuable in this project, namely, Public Speaking.

After the object of this meeting is accomplished, a time must be set for the formal organization meeting at which the form of ownership will be determined and officers will be elected or appointed.

Parliamentary Rules

This meeting may be called to order by anyone. Someone must start the meeting, and anyone who chooses may do this; but that person is limited to the duty of calling for the nomination

of a temporary chairman to whom the meeting must be turned over immediately. From this minute all proceedings become formal. The temporary Chairman declares the purpose of the meeting, permanent officers are elected, and the business of the organization proceeds. Thus parliamentary rules becomes a new topic with which the students must become acquainted.

It is true that in many business organizations the need for parliamentary procedure is not very great. When corporations are organized by business men, their attorneys ordinarily take care of all such details as the minutes of the meeting and the rules of procedure; yet there are often stockholders meetings where it is very important for the stockholders in the audience, as well as the Chairman, to be thoroughly acquainted with parliamentary rules.

Business Organization

Whether a Board of Directors is appointed or elected depends upon the form of ownership of the paper. Ordinarily a Board of Directors should be elected even though the Board acts entirely under the guidance and advice of the head of the school. The ownership of the paper, as has been suggested, may be in the hands of an individual, a firm, or a corporation. This ownership carries with it the power to make all appointments. In the case of your school paper, you may either have the student body elect the Board of Directors, they to appoint the officers, or the students may elect both the Directors and the Officers. The former plan is advisable. This, like everything else, will depend ultimately upon the decision of the owner, or owners.

After this vital fundamental has been decided upon the business organization will be like that of any other similar working force, as follows:

Business Manager—This person will be in general charge of all the business of the paper and directly responsible to the owner for its publication. In the case of a small paper, he will undertake to do all the work himself. Ordinarily, however, he will have under his charge the Circulation Manager and the Advertising

Manager, and he may either handle the funds himself, or have a Treasurer to do it for him.

Advertising Manager—The duties of the Advertising Manager are to establish the rates of advertising after consultation with the Business Manager; to solicit all advertisements; to secure copy from advertisers, helping them to prepare it, or preparing it for them whenever necessary; to look for new advertising ideas for his customers; and, if the magazine itself is to advertise in other publications, to assist the Circulation Manager in preparing copy for such advertising.

Circulation Manager—The duty of the Circulation Manager is to continue to increase the circulation of the publication by any or all of the following means as agreed upon between him and the Business Manager.

1—Personal Solicitation.
2—Circulation Contests.

a—By classes.
b—By societies.
c—By voting contests.

3—Advertising in other publications, if this can be done cheaply.

Editor-in-Chief—The Editor-in-Chief is responsible for all the literary copy, this is

1—Selection of copy.
2—Editing.
3—Proof Reading.

Like the Business Manager he may do all the work himself, or he may have the assistance of any or all of the following:

1—Reporters for any or all departments.
2—Literary Editors, for stories, humor, and sports.
3—Reporter from each Literary Society, or class.

If high quality is to be maintained in this magazine, there must be frequent consultations between the Editor-in-Chief and

his staff, and methods adopted for securing contributions of merit by frequent contests, by arousing rivalry between the classes or groups of the students, and by other similar methods. If illustrations are used in the paper to any considerable extent there must be an Art Editor upon whom shall devolve the duty of selecting them.

Business Management

General Policy

One of the first things necessary for the new organization is to decide upon the general policies of the paper. Many interesting questions will arise. Shall the paper be for students only, and limited in its scope to things that will interest students? This is the most common type of school or college paper. Shall the paper be used as a means of propaganda to interest prospective students? Whether or not this is done largely depends upon the interest that the head of the school has in using the paper for this purpose. Its use for this purpose may injure it as a publication particularly for and by the students, but not necessarily so. The financial support given by the school in return for this propaganda is frequently necessary to the life of the publication. By increasing the circulation it helps to increase the price that can be secured for advertising.

It is not impossible for a college paper to have a large general circulation. This is usually only true of college papers issued in the interest of some particular science, but there are a number of papers that have an extensive circulation nationally, and are widely quoted; their humor and scientific articles particularly.

The value of the college paper will be greatest to those who help to produce it.

No one of the staff should be contented merely to do what work is necessary to keep his department going. Each should study scientifically the most advanced ideas in his department. It is quite possible for the Advertising Manager of a college paper to originate so many clever ideas that he can secure an immediate

appointment in the Advertising Department of some great paper when he is through his school. The same is true of the Circulation Manager.

The Circulation Manager of a college paper has the advantage of loyalty to the school working in his favor, but it is quite possible for him to go far beyond this field to study his work until he is able to devise methods of building up a circulation list outside of the narrow circle of students who have what is known as the "school spirit."

As to the Literary Editors, it is just as possible for them to educate themselves along the line of producing an attractive paper as it is for the managers of the business divisions.

Student's Exercises for Lesson 53

Exercise No. 1—If your school already has a school paper, write in less than five hundred words your suggestion for a campaign to increase the circulation of the school paper. Do not write ideas out in full but indicate each method by topics.

Exercise No. 2—If your school has no school paper, select one of the following exercises:

a—Name and describe a proposed school paper. State size; number of pages desired; width of column; number of lines per column; quality, weight, and brand of paper; printer's estimate of cost; advertising rate per inch; funds now available for this source; annual number of subscribers; funds available from this source; cost of mailing; total costs and returns showing net loss or gain.

b—Make an outline of the organization of the proposed paper. If desired, you may name the persons you would like to have selected for the various offices, but this is not important. Do not copy the exact organization as outlined in this Lesson, but make the size of your organization depend upon the size of the school and the probably circulation of the paper.

c—Prepare as long a list as you can of the methods of obtaining the largest possible circulation.

LESSON 54

THE SCHOOL PAPER PROJECT—(Continued)

Selling Talk, and Answers to Objections

Examine the following arguments in favor of a school paper. Enlarge upon them in your imagination. It is not possible for each detail to be presented here. The purpose of your study is to fill in these details. Do not memorize these arguments—improve them by applying them to your particular case. Think of additional facts in support of each one. Add new ones. Pause at the end of each paragraph to enrich it with your own thoughts.

1—To Secure Attention

As you read the following arguments designed to secure the attention of your fellow student, a former student, or a friend, note carefully how many of these points he or she already knows. The probability is that students in school know all or most of them. This makes the beginning of your selling talk easier when you are talking to one already interested, and *harder* when you are talking to one who *has heard these facts without being interested.* In this latter case you have many more obstacles to overcome.

Selling Talk Points to Secure Attention

1—The students in a body have decided to establish a paper.

2—The principal and teachers wish to have a paper established.

3—The students committee has asked me to see you about the new paper we have decided to publish.

2—The principal and teachers wish to have a paper established. paper we have decided to publish.

5—The students are undecided whether to publish a paper or not and have asked me to get your opinion.

6—The principal of the school is undecided whether to allow us to publish a school paper, and wants the opinions of all students before we proceed. He has asked me to see you.

7—I have done you a good many favors, and now I want you to do me one.

8—You have done me a good many favors in school; now, I want to do you one.

9—You are a friend of our school and I want to tell you about a new enterprise of the students.

10—You have always been interested in promoting good enterprises. I want to tell you about a new one.

Some of these "opening points" are better than others. Some are good under some circumstances, and bad under others. At this stage in your study of salesmanship, you should be able to state which of these approaches will get the attention of various types of students and friends of the school. Consider this matter fully before passing to the topic that follows:

2—To Arouse Interest

Remember here what you learned in Lesson 35. It is much more important for you to discover the topic in which your customer is interested already than to rely upon your ability to awaken an interest that does not exist.

If the interest does not exist, it is necessary for you to try to awaken it, but the successful salesman who wastes little time, who proceeds triumphantly from one sale to another, who closes a sale quickly, and who gives the most satisfaction to his customer, is the one who, by understanding his customer, is able to *discover an interest that already exists* and play upon that.

Such a salesman proceeds along the lines of least resistance. He acts upon the principles explained in Lesson 2 and elsewhere. Having found the natural interest that exists in the mind of the customer he "lets the customer sell himself." The sale takes place in the mind of the customer, but it would not have taken place there unless the salesman had been skillful enough to discover his customer's interests and play upon them.

Statements to Arouse Interest

1—This new publication will put our school on the map.

2—Our paper will contain:

a—Stories and poems by the students, current jokes on students and on the faculty; jokes suitable for use on the platform or on social occasions

b—Articles about the school of interest to students and friends

c—Athletic news

d—Photographs of students who win scholastic or athletic honors

e—Articles taken from other school and college papers

f—Bulletins of school events

g—Advertisements of firms that should be patronized by the students

(You should select and revise the special feature or features most likely to interest the particular student or friend you are selling.)

3—Our paper will offer you an opportunity to contribute to its pages.

4—Our paper will enable you to become acquainted with the accomplishments of the leaders in all lines of school activity.

5—Certain students (naming them) will be among our chief contributors This should be a guarantee to you that the paper will be interesting at all times.

6—The articles or stories printed will be contributed by all students of the school who are interested. The best will be selected. This will insure an interesting publication.

7—By preserving all your copies of the school paper for many years you will have a keepsake of great value, which you will have great pleasure in looking over frequently in later years to remind you of your school days.

8—One of the elements of success is a keen interest in what you are doing either in school or in business. Your interest in our paper in this way is a test of your interest in your school life. It will help make you enthusiastic over your work here.

9—The mastering of school studies is not all there is to school life. Our paper will keep you abreast of student activities.

10—Reading our paper will remind you of your school days and keep the spirit of youth in you. No man or woman can really enjoy life who does not realize and sympathize with the feelings of young people.

As was the case in the preceding points, some of these arguments to arouse interest are better than others. The value of each depends upon the person to whom you are talking. Decide which would be better for an interested student, which would be better for an uninterested student, and which would be better for a former student or a friend.

3—To Create Desire

Creating desire, as you have already learned, depends to a considerable degree upon the selling points preceding this step, which you used to secure attention and to arouse interest. Nevertheless, desire is a distinct, new step in the process of the sale, and new arguments must be now presented. These new arguments must appeal to the self-interest of some students and the idealism of others. You are getting nearer to the crucial point in the sale.

Arguments to Create Desire

1—It will be very interesting to you to see your own photograph in the paper.

2—When your own photograph appears in the paper you will want extra copies to send to your folks.

3—It will be a great triumph for you to get a signed article, poem or joke printed.

4—Your assistance in preparing articles for the paper will be of great value to the school.

5—Getting your work accepted for the paper will be a real test of literary ability. You will improve your writing tremendously by constantly working for the paper.

6—You have an opportunity to learn the subscription and advertising game by working for our paper.

7—This paper is a democratic institution. There is no department of it in which you cannot work if you wish to do so. During your term of school you can thus become familiar with the fundamentals of the publishing business.

8—This paper will contain so much of interest to you that you will watch eagerly for the date of publication each month.

9—Through this paper we can get rid of many of the evils of student life.

10—Through this paper we can promote every good movement among the students.

11—This paper will inspire school loyalty and enable our school to win in interschool contests.

12—This paper will make our school life more like real life.

13—You may not know how many students there are in school or where they came from, or what their chief aims in life are. Our paper will bring you into intimate acquaintance with these things and will enable you to measure your success by that of others.

14—Through this paper we shall be able to get a full attendance of our own students at every important school event, whether athletic or literary.

Student's Exercise for Lesson 54

Select a student of your class. Analyze the arguments in this lesson that would apply to him or her. Write the first part of a short selling talk addressed to that student, the talk consising of one statement to secure attention, one to arouse interest, and one to create desire.

LESSON 55

THE SCHOOL PAPER PROJECT—(Continued)

4—To Compel Action

You have learned that if desire has been created, favorable action will follow as a matter of course. Nevertheless the favorable action of your customer is the *important point* in the sale, and you must leave no stone unturned to secure it. Having selected and used the arguments that you believe will awaken desire, and having watched for the favorable moment to close the sale, you now proceed to the last point in the process of the sale.

What to Say to Compel Action

Before studying the following arguments to compel action, examine carefully Chart 15 in Lesson 36. The following methods of closing are divided into the two groups suggested there:

a—If the buyer has followed your line of thought,

1—Here's the Order Blank and a pencil. You don't have to pay today but we want your signature immediately so we may know exactly what we may count on.

2—(When Order Blank is not used.) In order to subscribe, all you have to do is to give me your name and street address. (You already know his name and your questions have been asked in such a way as to call for an affirmative answer.)

3—(If a List is used.) Sign your name on this list just below these other people. (In an enterprise of this kind a list headed by the signatures of some of the students is the best method of securing the subscriptions of the others. It is always easier to get people to do what they know others have done especially when, as in this case, the aim is to get everybody in an organization to do the same thing.)

4—(If the subscriptions are taken in a public meeting.) Will all of you who will subscribe please stand up while we take your names and addresses?

b—If the buyer refuses to follow your line of thought,

1—You are a member of the Blank Class, or Department. We want to get everyone in that group.

2—What are your objections to subscribing now? (These are discussed in the following section.)

3—If you can't afford to subscribe, we can find some way for you to help with the mailing or delivering of the paper to pay for your subscription. (The chances are the student *can* afford it and this is merely an excuse. The opportunity you offer him to work out his subscription will force him either to subscribe or to state more definitely the reason he has for not doing so.)

4—Of course, there is no compulsion about this, but your cooperation will be appreciated not only by the students but by the teachers and Principal, and it will help your standing in the school.

5—If you must have your parent's consent will you tell me when I may see your father, or mother, or where I may address them so as to present the case to them? I am out to get a certain number of subscriptions and I shall be glad to do this. I am sure I can show them why you should subscribe. (The chances are if the refusal to subscribe is merely an excuse, due to a lack of interest, this method will secure the subscription. If, however, there is a real objection on the part of the parents, then you, as a salesman, are presented with a splendid opportunity to demonstrate your ability by making a thorough canvas of the father and mother. When they see your interest they will begin to understand what value the paper will have in arousing a similar interest in their son or daughter.)

Do not forget here what you have learned about the value of suggestion in handing the paper and pencil to the customer, at the proper moment, and in making the suggestion and in asking for the order in an affirmative way.

Answers to Objections

1. I AM NOT INTERESTED.

You ought to be, Jim. That is the whole trouble. If you are not interested in the affairs of the school you ought not be attending it, in all probability. This paper will help make you interested, and will give you a new satisfaction with your school life—something that you probably haven't got now.

2. I AM TOO BUSY WITH MY STUDIES.

Jim, you certainly do a considerable amount of reading every day. You read the newspapers and you read certain magazines. This school paper comes only once each month and it will take only a little of your time to read it and it will be a pleasure to you. I don't think you mean you haven't time to read it. You are opposed to it for some other reason. Now, let me have the reasons frankly, so I can know what to say to you.

3. I HAVEN'T ANY LITERARY ABILITY AND WOULD NEVER WANT TO WRITE ARTICLES FOR THE PAPER.

That is all right, Jim. Not everybody cares to write articles. Your job is to read them. The students who write them will have to give up a lot of time to make this a success. We don't ask that much of you, but we do want you to read the paper and help it along.

4. I HAVE'NT GOT THE MONEY.

a—If you are really in earnest about that, I will bring the matter up to the Business Manager and find a means for you to earn your subscription. We want to make this unanimous and get everybody. Don't let this keep you from subscribing.

b—That isn't true, Jim, for I know better. You spend as much money as this for a single show lots of times. What you really mean is that you don't want to spend your money this way, and I think you are wrong about it. While it is true that we need the help of every student, that isn't the only reason why we want you to subscribe. It is because in the course of a year you will get many times your money's worth from this paper. If you don't take it there will be dozen of things going on around you every day that you won't understand. You will hear jokes and references to students and teachers that you won't understand because they originated in the paper and you didn't read the paper. This paper is going to make a big difference in student life, and to keep up with things you owe it to yourself to subscribe to it.

The above are only a few of the objections that will be made and must be answered. The value of this lesson to you consists in your ability to anticipate other objections than the ones named here. Of course such plain speaking as that in paragraph b would be objectionable except among close friends.

Student's Exercise for Lesson 55

Select one of the persons named below and write a model selling talk of not over 300 words to secure his subscription.

1. Jim Smith, a good student, who is willing to subscribe but who has heard nothing yet about the paper and must have it explained to him.

2. Mary Jackson, a girl who has plenty of money, but who is thoughtless and easy going, and has made up her mind to read borrowed copies of the paper as they come out.

3. Peter Tucker, a close-fisted boy, who has the money but is entirely lacking in school spirit, and is disinterested.

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LESSONS 56 TO 60

A FIVE DAY ACTUAL SELLING CAMPAIGN

If it is desired to establish a school paper, the Salesmanship Class should conduct a selling campaign following the suggestions outlined in Lessons 52 and 53, and the outline of arguments presented in Lessons 54 and 55. Not less than a week of afternoons, and all day Saturday, should be devoted to this campaign. Five lessons are set aside for it.

The first thing necessary is to plan in complete detail the organization, as outlined in Lessons 52 and 53, taking ample time for the discussion and plans of the new organization.

Your second step is to complete the analysis of arguments presented briefly in Lessons 54 and 55, and to rehearse them through, having members of the class sell each other, one acting as the salesman and the other as the customer, the customer raising objections which the salesman must answer until the class has been thoroughly drilled in the presentation of arguments.

The members of your class should then be assigned to the various groups of students whom they are to solicit. This may be done by assigning each salesman to some group of students to which he belongs or by dividing the students alphabetically and requiring each salesman to report on each student whom he canvasses, or by means of contests in which the members of the Salesmanship Class are divided into teams.

It must not be forgotten that the soliciting of students actually in school is the smallest part of the work building up a good circulation. Members of the class must be given the names of former students, of friends of the school, of business men who are likely to be interested, and above all, names of outsiders. The real test of such salesmanship after the complete subscription list has been secured from present students, former students, and friends, is to see how far the subscription list can be extended to the general

public. The test of the salesman is his ability to sell to someone in an office, store, or home, who is an entire stranger to him and who will decide the case strictly on its merits. It must not be forgotten too that the soliciting of advertising forms is a still more imporant branch of salesmanship to which the members of the class may apply themselves. This work cannot very well be done until the subscription work is completed. The salesman must know how many subscribers to the publication there will be, what the purchasing power of these subscribers will be, what the reasons are for supposing they will patronize the advertisers in their paper, etc. He must be prepared to give the advertisers suggestions for attractive copy. Many advertisers are sold on this point alone. The salesman makes a suggestions for copy so attractive that the advertiser wishes to try it out.

If this work is undertaken, the officers of the paper must thoroughly formulate their plans and design their records so that no mistakes will be made. It is a very excellent opportunity for you to demonstrate your ability and to secure some actual practice, the whole object of which will be lost if you do not carefully plan your selling talks in advance and give them in full in practice drills.

If the school has a school paper, the same amount of time, study and effort should be devoted to a campaign for new subscribers, new advertisers and the sale of additional space to present advertisers. The same methods of formulating arguments and organizing for effective work should be used, the suggestions in the preceding four lessons being modified to suit the case.

If neither of these school paper projects is carried into practice, it is urgently suggested that some other actual selling campaign be undertaken by the class at this time, preferably, a real selling campaign of some article offered for sale to the general public by a local merchant. The following are suggested:

1—School tuition—If the school is a private school.

2—Some business specialty, the local manager for which desires to have the business section of your city canvassed. Among such

articles can be mentioned: Typewriters, Automobile Accessories, Sectional Filing Cases, Business Phonographs, Window Display Novelties, Fountain Pens, Ever Sharp Pencils, Typewriter Paper, Business Letterheads.

3—Newspaper Advertising Space—A Newspaper in your city may be willing to use your class for a canvas of the stores and other advertisers who are not regular users of their space.

4—Memberships in the Chamber of Commerce, the Red Cross, the Automobile Club, or some other organization desiring to enlist the interest of the entire city.

5—A School Entertainment, tickets to which must be sold by the members of the Salesmanship Class.

To get the full value from such an enterprise, you should carry on the primary investigation of the article you arrange to sell, being sure that the arrangement entered upon is one that will be financially profitable to you. Examine all the possibilities in your city. The study itself will be interesting and valuable. Decide upon the article or service to be sold, and go after the work in a business-like way with a definite, positive intention of making money. When the arrangement is concluded with the business man whose product is to be sold, he should be asked to drill the class thoroughly in the sale of his article before the attempt is made.

CAUTION: This exercise will do more harm than good if it is started and not completed. If you undertake it, each member of the class must do his part of the work as definitely as though he were being hired for the purpose, and must conduct the work to a successful conclusion. An attempt made and abandoned would be very injurious to each member of the class.

LESSON 61

PROJECT—MARKETING A RADIO RECEIVER

We are now ready to consider a larger project—placing on the market a new Radio receiver, sometimes called the wireless receiver. The information given in Chart 20 and Lessons 52 and 53 need not be duplicated here, since all projects are alike in their general arrangement. You must note, however, that in this business a knowledge of *radio-electricity* must take the place of a knowledge of *News values and literature* as a major requirement. You must also note that the field of your activities in this business is *national* whereas in the previous project it was *local,* and that you have in this business a capital of $100,000.00, whereas in the former enterprise you had no capital. These three differences are all vital; yet the general principle involved in your study of the project is the same. It is:

In all business projects you must study (1) the special science with which the business deals, (2) the general relation of your business to other related lines, (3) the rules and customs of business organizations in general, and (4) the science of salesmanship as applied to your special product.

It is this great principle that makes the study of any project valuable, as we have noted twice before, for the study of a business project is the study of any part of a given business in its relation to all other parts of that business and all other businesses and professions. This enlarges your field. Just as you have learned that a salesman is made more efficient by a knowledge of all departments of his business, so you are now learning that, to be supremely efficient, a salesman must learn his business in its general relation to all business and life.

Let us now proceed with the study of the wireless radio receiver project.

Full detail about the instrument will be given later, but for the present it is merely necessary for you to know that the radio receiver (sometimes called the wireless) receives radio messages whether sent by radio telegraphy or radio telephony. Radio telegraphy has been in actual operation nearly a generation. Radio telephony is only a few years old, and radio receivers will probably be, in five or ten years, as common as the Victrola is today. The machine we are to market, however, is an entirely new variety of radio receiver.

In this project we are to establish a company, name our product, formulate a selling campaign, and perform all the details of that campaign to the final act of declaring dividends.

All we have to begin business on, is the ownership of the patents necessary for the production of the article, the blue prints of it, and one hand made model. We are to be a selling corporation, and the machine is to be manufactured for us at a contract price for the completed instrument.

Every business man, before he invests his time and money in any patented article should carefully investigate the following:

1. *The safety of the patents.* This is fundamental. If any patent is an infringement, the investor might just as well have thrown his money into the sea to begin with. The same is, of course, true if the invention is impractical. We cannot go into the details regarding patents, but you must remember the *fundamental importance of this subject.*

2. *The character and ability of the person or persons who are to manage the business.* A patent may be perfectly good and valuable, but an incapable and dishonest management will produce bad results.

There are many dangers here. The practice of incorporating a company, spending all the money of the original stockholders before success is attained, and then refinancing at the cost of the original stockholders, is a pitfall into which uninformed investors are constantly falling. Each investor should assure himself that enough money is put into a patent by the original group of pro-

moters to *see it through;* for if it must be refinanced it is certain that the persons who put in the new money will secure possession and control of the stock. This practice of "squeezing out early investors" is so common that there is hardly to be found any man of moderate means who has not at some time or other suffered from such a loss.

3. *Market for the article.* It is important, when deciding whether or not an article is marketable, to know that you are not misled by your own personal enthusiasm. Many investors are misguided by interest and imagination. The question is not whether the article appeals to you personally, but whether it will appeal to the great buying public.

For the purposes of the following project we must assume that all of these questions have been answered affirmatively. The patents are good. The managers are both capable and trustworthy. The article is salable.

We now proceed to place it upon the market.

We are to begin by forming a stock company. The following are the articles of incorporation:

Articles of Incorporation*

KNOW ALL MEN BY THESE PRESENTS: That we, the undersigned, for the purpose of forming a corporation under the laws of Missouri, relating to manufacturing and business companies, have entered into the following agreement:

FIRST: That the name of the corporation shall be The Radipho Company.

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* This identical form is used only in Missouri, and should not be used in other states. Substantially the same general provisions and procedure are required in each state. No corporation ought to be formed anywhere except under the advice of competent counsel. Imperfectly organized corporations leave the stockholders in the attitude of partners in the eye of the law, thereby making each stockholder responsible for all debts of the imperfect corporation. The advantage of a corporation is that each stockholder's liability is limited to the amount paid or agreed to be paid for his stock.

SECOND: That the corporation shall be located in the city of St. Louis, Missouri.

THIRD: That the amount of the capital stock is One Hundred Thousand Dollars ($100,000.00), divided into one thousand (1,000) shares of the par value of One Hundred Dollars ($100.00) each; that the same has been *bona fide* subscribed and One Hundred Thousand Dollars ($100,000.00) thereof actually paid up in lawful money of the United States, and is in the custody of the persons hereinafter named as the first Board of Directors.

FOURTH: That the names, places of residence of the shareholders, and the number of shares subscribed by each are:

Name	Residence	Number of shares
.....	.....	.....
.....	.....	.....
.....	.....	.....

FIFTH: That the Board of Directors shall consist of five (5) shareholders, and the names of those agreed on for the first year are ....., ..., ..., and .....

SIXTH: That the corporation shall continue for a term of fifty (50) years.

SEVENTH: That the corporation is formed for the following purposes: (*Here insert a complete statement of the purposes, and all the purposes of this corporation.*)

EIGHTH: The first meeting of the stockholders shall be held at the office of ....., Room ....., ... Building, St. Louis, Missouri, on the ..... day of ..... at ..... o'clock, and for the purpose of electing directors.

IN TESTIMONY WHEREOF, we have hereunto set our hands this .....day of ....., 19....

(Here insert the signatures of all stockholders.)

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

STATE OF .....}
..... OF .....} SS.

On this ..... day of ....., 19..., before me personally appeared ..... (names of all the stockholders) to me known to be the persons described in and who executed the foregoing instrument, and acknowledged that they executed the same as their free act and deed.

IN TESTIMONY WHEREOF, I have hereunto set my hand and affixed my notarial seal the day and year last above mentioned.

My commission expires ....., 19.....

(SEAL) .....

Notary Public.

STATE OF .....}
..... OF .....} SS.

The undersigned, ...
.... and ....., being all of the subscribers, including persons selected as directors for the first year, to the above and foregoing articles of agreement for the incorporation of the....., being duly sworn, upon their oaths each did say that the statements and matters set forth therein are true; that they know the property described in Article 3 of said articles of agreement and

taken in payment of the capital stock, and that the value placed on the same is the actual value of said property.

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
(Signatures of Subscribers.)

Subscribed and sworn to before me this.....
day of ...., A. D., 19.....

My commission expires ....., 19.....

.....
Notary Public.

Selection of a Name for the Company

The selection of a name is of far greater importance than is usually supposed. A name may have great advertising value. Many articles of inferior merit are sold on strength of a clever or attractive name.

Sometimes a name becomes so famous that its value is far greater than the trade names of the products of all of its competitors. The name *kodak* is an example of this. The common name of a photographic instrument is *camera,* but the Eastman Company originated and patented the name "kodak," which at first merely meant to the popular mind the name of a certain camera manufactured by Eastman. Presently, however, this name became of such prominence that the general public began to use it as a substitute for the name "camera." The statement seen on nearly all of the Eastman advertising—"If it isn't an Eastman, it isn't a kodak"—is therefore literally true. It can't be a kodak unless Eastman manufactures it, because that is the patented name of the Eastman product.

Many other similar illustrations can be given. Practically all the breakfast foods have trade names of this sort. There is only

one manufacturer of "grapenuts," for instance, and that is The Postum Cereal Company. There cannot be Smith's Grapenuts; or Brown's Grapenuts; because the word "grapenuts" is a trade-name for an article prepared or manufactured by a particular person or institution and no one else, even though he duplicates the article, will be allowed by law to duplicate the name.

In this case the article, which is a receiver for radio messages, is patented and therefore cannot be duplicated; and it is wise to "invent" a name which may become a "trade-name" and cannot be duplicated by others. We select the name "Radipho" for the reason that it is a combination of the words "radio" and "phone" and tells the whole story of the purpose of the instrument, and yet is a coined word which can by appropriation become our exclusive property. It is not necessary that this coined word should indicate the nature of the product. The word "kodak" does not. There is nothing about the word to indicate that it has anything to do with the camera. The association of "kodak" with "camera" has been merely the result of continuous use and extensive advertising. We have selected the word "radipho" because it has the additional advantage of suggesting the product and will, therefore, suit our purpose better than "metabo" or some word that does not suggest the radio receiver.

The word "radigram" would suggest the radio telegram, but the inventor and promoter of the instrument we are to sell, believes that the radio telegraph will eventually be supplanted by the radio telephone and, therefore, prefers a name that will emphasize the telephone rather than the telegraph, though as a matter of fact, as you have learned, a receiving instrument will receive messages whether sent by radio telephone or by radio telegraph.

Purposes

We should also, as part of our articles of incorporation, agree upon and insert therein the "purposes" for which the corporation is formed. In some states the custom is to state these purposes in

great detail. Likewise some lawyers prefer this detail. However, this is not required in Missouri and "our lawyer" has advised us that brevity is preferable. Hence in the seventh paragraph we should insert (after the words "The corporation is formed for the following purposes), the following: "To manufacture, buy, sell and deal in receivers for radio messages and other appliances necessary and useful in connection with the telephone and telegraphic communication by wire or wireless methods."

The foregoing articles of incorporation when the necessary insertions have been made therein should be signed by each subscriber to the capital stock and further steps in the organization of the corporation should not be taken until the full number of shares ($1,000) have been subscribed and these subscriptions indicated opposite the signatures at the bottom thereof.

When the articles thus signed have been acknowledged before a notary public, they should be filed in the Recorder's office of the city where the principal office of the corporation is located; in this instance, with the Recorder of Deeds for the City of St. Louis. The Recorder will record these articles of incorporation, for the information of the public, and furnish to the subscribers a certified copy thereof, which certified copy must be filed in the office of the Secretary of State, who will, thereupon, issue a certificate of incorporation and a certified copy thereof, which certified copy must again be filed with the Recorder of Deeds in the City of St. Louis. When this certificate is thus received from the Secretary of State a meeting of the stockholders, that is the subscribers to the articles of incorporation, should be held at the time and place indicated in the above form of articles of incorporation. This is the first stockholder's meeting, in anticipation whereof By-Laws should be prepared for adoption at the meeting. By-Laws usually specify time and place of meeting of directors and stockholders, methods of voting, maximum amount of stock to be held by any stockholder, if a limit is to be placed thereon, powers delegated to certain officers and directors, etc. The shares of stock ($1,000, of the par value of $100.00 each) may now be

issued of which the patentee is to receive 150 shares, and the remaining 850 shares are to be divided among the subscribers.

Generally the principal business to come before the first stockholders' meeting is the adoption of By-laws and the election of directors. On each proposition submitted to the stockholders' meeting each stockholder is entitled to one vote for each share of stock held by him. (In some states stockholders are entitled to cumulate their votes in the election of directors; that is to say, they are entitled for each share to vote as many times as there are directors; if there are five directors, then for each share they are entitled to five votes, and these votes may be cast all for one person for director or for two, three or all of the persons for directors. Cumulative voting applies only, however, to the election of directors. Ordinarily, stockholders meet only once a year, and, if by-laws have been adopted, the principal purpose customarily is to vote for directors.)

The stockholders should organize the meeting by selecting some one to act as chairman, and another to act as Secretary, of the meeting.

The by-laws, previously prepared, should be read to the stockholders and adopted, section by section, or as a whole, as may be preferred, with or without any amendments that may be offered at the meeting.

In the present instance the Board of Directors for the first year is named in the Articles of Incorporation. Hence in this instance there will be no *elected* Directors for the first year. Annually thereafter there should be an election of directors.

Elections of directors should be by ballot, and in some states it is so required. Each stockholder should write the name of the director or directors for whom he is voting, indicating on his ballot the number of shares held by him, and sign his name thereto. This is desirable for the purpose of record in case of controversy; but it is not essential unless required by statute in the particular state, and may usually be done *viva voce*. If there is no further business before the meeting, it should be adjourned, and the record

of the meeting be then or thereafter signed by the Chairman and Secretary.

We now have a corporation with a board of directors, but we are still lacking the necessary officers, and to provide these we should now hold a directors' meeting. It is generally provided in the by-laws that the first directors' meeting shall convene immediately after the stockholders' meeting at which they were elected, but the meeting may be held then or at any later time, when all of the directors are present, and agree that the meeting shall be held, or, if not present, consent in writing, thereto. The directors' meeting should be called to order by again selecting a chairman and secretary and thereupon some one should be nominated for president, and the vote of the directors take *viva voce,* and the president, so selected, should immediately take the place of the chairman. Thereupon, a secretary should be selected in the same manner, and likewise be substituted for the temporary secretary of the meeting. In like manner, the other officers should be nominated and elected.

The officers should usually be selected, and in some states are required to be selected, from the directors.

All important matters should be determined by the board of directors. Therefore, it is important that the by-laws should provide for regular directors' meetings at stated times, and the by-laws should also provide for special meetings, to be called by the president on short notice, so that important matters requiring the action of directors may be disposed of promptly; but the general routine of the corporation and the execution of the plans and policies previously decided by the board of directors are accomplished through executive action, that is, the action of the officers, and not the action of the directors; otherwise the directors would have to be in session constantly.

In the present instance, officers having been elected, the directors should act upon the following propositions:

(1) Consider and authorize the execution of a contract with the patentee. (To one or several of the students should be allotted the task of preparing a proper contract with the patentee.)

(2) Selection and location of the general office of the company and authorization of the execution of proper lease therefore. (To one or more of the students should be allotted the task of preparing such a lease.)

(3) The consideration of the contract with the manufacturer for the production feature of the patented article. (To one or more of the students should be assigned the preparation of such a contract.)

(4) The adoption of a sales campaign:

a—Market
b—Selling price and dealer's discount
c—Salesmen's salaries and commissions
d—Advertising
e—Proper guaranty to purchasers
f—Sales of articles

(5) The selection of a manager and other heads of departments if any.

Of every thing authorized by the board of directors the secretary should make a succinct minute in a permanently bound book, and these minutes should be signed by the secretary, when properly written up, and, if convenient, by the president also. It is more convenient to keep the minutes of the meetings of both stockholders and directors in one minute book.

Student's Exercise for Lesson 61

Write five names for this instrument that you think are as good, or nearly as good, as Radipho.

LESSON 62

RADIO RECEIVER PROJECT—(Continued)

Selection of Location for General Office

Select a good location in your town. Do not do this haphazardly. Discuss the real estate values in your town as you know them. If necessary get expert advice from a real estate man, bearing in mind the following requirements:

1—*Convenience.* The men employed in this office will be better business men if they keep in touch with the leaders of commercial life in your city. They should, therefore, not be too far away from the center of things unless price of rental space down town is too great.

2—*Price and opportunity to expand.* With only a hundred thousand dollars to begin on to promote this great enterprise, you cannot afford to own your own building and you must have cheap rent. Moreover, your business is likely to grow by leaps and bounds. You cannot afford to lease too much space at first but you must lease space in a building where additional space is available or will be available if needed and you must have an understanding with the landlord that you will be given additional space when you need it. If you can, therefore, you should find a landlord who will lease you certain space for ten years and agree to lease to the adjoining tenants for shorter periods of time, so that you may have their space later.

3—*Comfort and Furnishings.* You expect to do a national business, not a local business, so it is not necessary to have either an expensive corner or elegant quarters. An expensive location is necessary for a department store, or a picture show. Tasteful and well-furnished quarters are perhaps necessary and profitable for a lawyer, or a physician. Neither, however, will be necessary to this business, nor will it be desirable to spend any considerable sum of money along these lines until you are well established and have it to spend. The quarters must be respectable and kept in good order. They must not be too cheap, so that it will be unpleasant to work in them or that the impression created upon your own force will be depressing. Since your customers, however, will not call at your place of business and you will not promote the sale of stock, your quarters should be sensible, comfortable, and as cheap as they can be reasonably secured.

4—*Adaptability to your business.* You will undoubtedly have several demonstration machines in the office, and you must be sure, before leasing the property, that the building is so constructed, and the surrounding buildings so arranged that there is plenty of room for as powerful aerials as are necessary. Under a later topic the aerials and other terms used in this business will be explained.

Plans for Contract with Manufacturer

This is one of the big topics of any business of this sort, but since we are to consider only the selling project, we dismiss the subject here with the statement that arrangements have been made with the Universal Electric Manufacturing Company, Chicago, Illinois, to produce complete instruments for the fixed price of $23.50, each, f. o. b. railroad or express company.

Plans for Home Office Management

We shall spend a little more time on this topic, because it is of immense importance to the business and closely related to selling. Selling campaigns may be conducted with extraordinary success so far as the salesmen are concerned and utterly ruined by incompetence and extravagance in the Home Office—a fact attested by hundreds of failures of meritorious projects each year.

For the purpose of our brief study of Home Office Management, we have designated full authority to the manager of the company, and the details of an active selling campaign will be shown presently. It is necessary to note here, however, that the budget of fixed expenses of the organization, rent, salaries, and other fixed charges against the Home Office will amount to $1,250.00 per month not including advertising and selling expenses which will require separate appropriations. These charges consist of the following:

Manager's Salary	$ 250.00
Treasurer's Salary	150.00
Stenographer	75.00
Stenographer	100.00
Stenographer	125.00
Bookkeeper and Billing Clerk	125.00
Rent	200.00
Other General Office Expenses	225.00
Total	$1,250.00

We shall also assume that these expenses will be incurred for four months beginning January 1 and ending April 30, before the first salesman is needed and that during those four months additional sums will have to be paid for the salary of a Sales Manager. The Sales Manager will have charge of both sales and advertising, and expenses are to be allowed to him for the purpose of getting together a sales force ready to study the selling problem on full salary during the month of April, and to begin selling on salary and commission on the first of May.

The contract with the patentee grants him 15% of the stock of the company and a royalty of $3.00 per instrument for each one sold.

You are especially cautioned in your study not to omit any of the preceding details of Home Office Management. Fix them firmly in your mind, as every one of them will have a bearing upon the sales campaign later, which you cannot understand without a knowledge of these arrangements for Home Office Management.

It is necessary at this point for you to learn before proceeding further, what the Radipho is, and, in a general way, how it is constructed.

Let us begin by referring to the telephone, with which all are familiar.

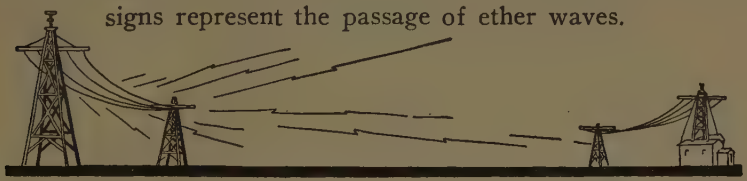
You all know what the general plan of a telephone is. In its simplest form, which is all you need to understand, a telephone system consists of a transmitter into which one person speaks, a

wire along which certain electrical waves travel, and a receiver which another person holds to his ear to hear the sound.

As a matter of fact the sound does not travel over the wire. The transmitter transforms the sound into electrical vibrations. These travel along the wire at the speed of electricity, which is 188,000 miles a second, or nearly instantaneous. When they reach the receiver, the electrical vibrations are transformed again into sounds—the same sounds that were originally sent. Long before the invention of the telephone, the same general principles were in operation in the telegraph.

In order to realize the commercial value of the telephone or telegraph it is not necessary to know exactly how this miracle is accomplished. The wisest man living does not know what electricity is. He only knows how it operates. The ordinary user of the telephone or telegraph does not know even that, nor need he know it.

This commercial value of the radio telegraph and telephone lies in the fact that they accomplish the same purpose without the use of a wire. Instead of travelling along a wire the electrical vibrations travel through the air, on currents of ether, or ether waves, that carry sound at the same rate of speed as an electric wire carries them. In the picture below the electrical spark signs represent the passage of ether waves.



Sending Aerial Wires Receiving Aerial Wire or Wires

The sender speaks into a mouthpiece leading directly to a transmitter, the construction of which it is not necessary for you to understand. This transmitter transforms the sounds into vibrations that travel 186,000 miles a second, by a process similar to the process in the case of the telephone. These vibrations are produced by the sending apparatus. The messages go in all directions. They are gathered in by an aerial with which they come

in contact that is "tuned" to receive them. They are carried to the receiving apparatus by this aerial which often consists of a single wire. This wire is usually on top of the house or building in which the receiving instrument is located, though the best location for it is above vacant ground. The vibrations, caught by this wire, travel into the receiving instrument and are there transformed again into the original sounds. These sounds may be thrown into the room through a horn and may be heard by large audiences.

The process of "tuning" a receiving instrument to the same number of electrical vibrations per second as were used by the transmitter, which is call "tuning to the wave length," is simple for the operator of the Radipho, though the construction of the machine, which we need not study here, is complicated. The operator simply turns several dials with his fingers to points which he knows in advance will bring the sound in; and he does this exactly as one turns the dials of a safe to a certain point in order to open a safe.

The following is a picture of the Radipho radio receiver:

Exterior View CR-8 Receiver

For convenience as well as for beauty and utility, all the various parts of the receiver, including the horn, are in one case, three feet long, one foot high and one foot deep. This case may be placed upon a table, the top of a piano or Victrola, the floor, or any flat surface. By extending the two wires that lead to the aerial and the ground, one may carry the machine from room to room.

Without presenting further mechanical details, we may con-

clude with the following details concerning the Radipho, which the salesman must know before attempting to sell it:

1—It weighs twelve pounds.

2—Its wire are concealed and cannot be disturbed unless the owner willfully takes it apart. If left alone it will last for years, like a piano, without repairs or adjustments being necessary.

3—No study is required of owners who desire to hear speech and music only. Those who wish to read telegraphic signals must study the code.

4—The erection of a receiving aerial is very simple. Only one wire is required ordinarily, and onyone of common intelligence can erect it after seeing it done once, or after hearing a description of the method.

5—The range of the Radipho is from 150 to 3,000 meters. It can hear messages from all sending machines within a thousand miles that send with a wave-length of 150 to 3,000 meters. The highest powered machines in the world send at 20,000 meters, but there are only a few above 3,000. The United States Government transmitter at Arlington, Virginia, sends time signals and weather reports in code at 2,500 meters. Most of the transmitters in this country can be heard on the Radipho. It is superior to ordinary machines of the same size that can hear plainly only 50 or 100 miles.

6—Aside from the Radipho itself, the equipment necessary to make it work is a storage battery, to give it power, one or more dry batteries, known as "B" batteries, and a rectifier, by which the storage battery can be re-charged when it runs low. The owner may get along without the rectifier by taking his storage battery to an electrical company to have it re-charged as required.

Student's Exercise for Lesson 62

Prepare a letterhead giving the name and address of the company, the list of officers, and a statement of the nature of the business, not exceeding fifteen words, to be incorporated in the letterhead. This statement must have advertising value and must tell the most ignorant person what you have to sell and what its purpose is.

LESSON 63

THE MARKET

Comparatively few people yet grasp the significance of the radio telegraph and telephone or the extraordinary extent of their development which has been taking place in less than a single generation. Twenty years ago the interest in the possibilities of the air was confined to a few scientific men who were thought by the people of their time to be proceeding along lines that were visionary not to say insane. When Marconi sent the first wireless telegram in 1897 the world was astounded, but still very few grasped the significance of the discovery.

Now we have not only a great development of the radio telegraph but of the radio telephone also. The sending instruments for telegraphing and those for telephoning are of different type. A single receiving instrument as you have learned, catches both types of message. To own and operate a sending instrument one must hold a license issued by the Federal government. To operate a receiving instrument one need have no license.

Receiving instruments vary in size and expense from a small outfit which any intelligent boy or girl of twelve can put together for a few dollars, to large fully equipped instruments that can receive messages sent by the most powerful sending stations, and costing hundreds or even thousands of dollars. Satisfactory types of fully equipped receiving machines can be purchased fully equipped and set up, at prices ranging from $100.00 to $300.00. They can be built for a few dollars. Speaking generally, all instruments of this type can receive messages sent by instruments of various sizes from distances varying from a few miles to a thousand miles or more.

Perhaps no better idea of the vast size and importance of this industry can be had than from the statement that a single issue of the Radio News in 1922 contained over 125 advertisements of radio manufacturers, radio dealers and radio schools, most of

which were full pages or half pages, and that this publication, which is one of several large and important radio magazines, has an enormous circulation and is already one of America's biggest trade publications.

To estimate the possibilities of the business of the Radipho Company by the size of the market would be a practical impossibility, since there is almost no limit to what that market would be if fully developed. Certainly it would closely approach the telephone, the piano and the Victrola even today, if developed; and the improvements in radio that will come in the immediate future, may make its market even greater than these, since it combines so many commercial uses to its value as a source of entertainment. Many thoughtful people believe that the educational possibilities of radio exceed those of printing; and printing revolutionized the world.

We must, then, consider the possibilities of a market for the Radipho from an entirely different angle, that is, by considering our present working capital, the amount we can spend for our selling campaign, the number of men we can employ at the beginning, and the rapidity with which they may be able to make sales. Let us consider these questions in their order.

Amount Available for Selling Campaign

We have already seen that our available supply of funds for all purposes is $100,000.00 plus sales that can be made after the beginning of the fourth month. Our expenses at the Home Office will go on regularly at the rate of $1,250.00 per month, and we are to establish, in accordance with our best judgment, the amount to be appropriated for advertising and sales campaigns. Our first question is: Shall we proceed along very conservative lines, or shall we spend our money quickly hoping for quick results? Let us consider three plans:

1—Very Conservative Plan

This is a plan to distribute the expense of our campaign over about two years. The regular office charges of $1,250.00 per

month amount to $15,000.00 per year, or $30,000.00 for two years. This leaves $70,000.00 that may be invested in the sales campaign to spread over the last twenty-one months of those two years—three months being spent in organization work without other expenses than those of salaries and small office expense items of the employees already hired. Under this plan the expense of whatever salesmen are employed will begin on April 1. Some returns can be expected beginning May 1, but if we are to operate on this plan very conservatively, we will not increase the number of salesmen we hire at first until results warrant it. We will, therefore, entirely eliminate, in our first plan, any consideration of returns from sales for two years. This does not mean that we are not to have any; it means that we will make no increase of our expenses until we do get returns. We will plan our original campaign without taking sales into consideration *until the sales are made*. We will, of course, revise our plan month by month to increase our activities *when our sales begin*.

We must now discover the cost of a salesman per month. We will assume that a salesman can be hired upon a salary and commission basis with a guarantee of $150.00 per month upon the following plan:

A salesman is to go to a town designated by the Sales Manager. He will secure office room in small office at $25.00 per month; get in touch with the Radio Club of the city, if there is one, or with all the amateurs if there is no club. He will then proceed to interest prospective purchasers by inviting them to his office to listen to radio messages. Under his commission plan it will be necessary for him to sell seven instruments per month to make his guaranteed salary and office expense.

If by selling 13 instruments per month he can double his salary, his pay will be larger and the receipts of the company will be larger also; so the company need not worry about its ability to pay him for additional sales.

What the company must figure on is an outlay of $175.00 per month for each salesman employed. It has $70,000.00 to invest

and it has decided to spend $20,000.00 per year at the rate of $10,000 per year in advertising, leaving $50,000.00 for the other features in the sales campaign. A salesman operating at a cost of $175.00 per month for 21 months, will consume $3,675.00. It would be possible, with $50,000.00 for the purpose, to employ 13 salesmen at the start and keep them for the entire period; for, in case any of them failed to produce sufficiently, the Sales Manager could relieve them and substitute others in their places.

If we adopt this very conservative plan, it will be better to employ only 10 such salesmen at the beginning and to send them to ten cities not too far apart; under promise to put each one in charge of the entire territory around his city if he makes good.

For reasons described in Lesson 40 it is better to try to capture a certain section of the country first, rather than to undertake to cover the whole of the United States with ten salesmen. The success of these salesmen will indicate the speed with which other salesmen can be sent into new territories. It would certainly be far better, if the head office were in Chicago, to locate these ten men in such points as Chicago, Minneapolis, Des Moines, Peoria, St. Louis, Kansas City, Indianapolis, Detroit, Cincinnati, and Omaha; rather than to scatter the ten men to New York, Philadelphia, Boston, Portland, San Francisco, Galveston, New Orleans, etc.

There are advantages in both methods. Some managers would decide to keep the ten salesmen even closer to Chicago, at first, than in the ten cities mentioned, keeping about three salesmen in Chicago itself and sending the others to points not farther away than Milwaukee, Madison, Rockford, Peoria, Davenport, St. Louis, Terre Haute, Fort Wayne, Springfield and Detroit.

2—Moderately Conservative Plan

A moderately conservative plan would be to adopt the same system as outlined above, but to spend the $20,000.00 for advertising and the $50,000.00 for sales promotion in one year rather

than in two years. This would allow twice as much advertising and the employment of twice as many salesmen. The budget of expenses under this plan should be figured by exactly the same method you have just studied.

3—Quick Results Policy

Some promoters and managers, being unwilling to wait so long a time for results, would plan to employ a much larger number of salesmen and do a much larger amount of advertising *immediately,* on the theory that if the Radipho is a good thing the immediate results in sales will be better from a big campaign; and that, when the original investment of $100,000.00 is gone, the immediate sales resulting, added to the ability of the company to borrow from banks, will enable it to succeed not only more quickly but in a far bigger way.

If there are men of great means in the corporation who will continue to put their finances into the enterprise, then this latter method is the best method *for them.* It is never the best method for the small stockholder who cannot put in more money, for it will "squeeze him out" either by forcing him to sell his stock at a low price or by a reorganization process. Small stockholders are often misled into believing they are safe because larger stockholders have money to back up the proposition. So far as their personal interests are concerned, *the reverse is often, if not usually, true.*

Price of Instrument

Many elements enter into the question of fixing a price. You have already learned that the cost of the completed instrument is to be $23.50, plus $3.00 for royalties, making a total of $26.50. If the plan of selling were by mail only, and orders should come direct to the Home Office in sufficient quantities, a price of $35.00 or $40.00 could be placed upon the machine, and it could be sold at this price very profitably.

If, on the other hand, it is thought that the public is not well enough educated to the need and desirability of radio telephones to buy by mail, or through advertising alone, salesmen must be

employed; and since it will take a very good salesman to sell more than three or four machines per week, it must be arranged for the salesman to get at least $20.00 or $25.00 for each sale. High class men would not be likely to undertake the work for smaller commissions.

Now, since the plan of selling through salesmen requires a larger outlay of money, the margin of profit for the dealer must be larger. The company, therefore, has its choice of two propositions:

a—A low price and low commissions for the salesman, with low profits for the house,

b—A high price with high commissions for the salesman and fewer sales and larger profits on each sale for the house.

It is necessary for you to consider the following in connection with these two points:

1—Which of these plans is more conservative?

2—Which is more likely to popularize the product?

3—Which is more likely to interest good salesman?

4—How much is the question of price going to interfere with a sale?

5—What are the prices of competitive articles?

The stockholders should proceed to a discussion of all these matters before fixing a price.

For the purpose of illustration, the price discussed here will be $75.00 for the completed instrument including installation to be done by the salesman. His commission will be $25.00, and against these commissions he will be guaranteed a salary of $150.00 per month, office rent of $25.00 per month—the $175.00 to be deducted from his monthly commissions.

Sales

For the purpose of figuring results in the following paragraph, we will assume that the following number of sales per month will be the general average of all salesmen.

3 sales in May

3 sales in June

3 sales in July
2 sales in August
5 sales in September
6 sales in October
6 sales in November
15 sales in December (Christmas sale)
9 sales per month during each month of the next year.

Student's Exercise for Lesson 63

Examine the following budget (read across the two pages) for the first year of the existence of the Radipho Company, and then make out a similar one for the second year.

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April
	$	$	$	$
Balance First of Month	100,000.00	92,750.00	90,500.00	88,250.00
Receipts from Salesmen				
Receipts from Direct Sales				
Total	100,000.00	92,750.00	90,500.00	88,250.00
Expenses (Home Office)	1,250.00	1,250.00	1,250.00	1,250.00
Equipment, Supplies, etc	5,000.00			
Advertising	1,000.00	1,000.00	1,000.00	5,000.00
10 Salesmen				1,500.00
Salesman's Office Rent				
Salesman's Added Commissions				
Royalty ($3.00)				
Cost of Machine ($23.50)				
Total	7,250.00	2,250.00	2,250.00	7,750.00
Balance Last of Month	92,750.00	90,500.00	88,250.00	80,500.00
Number Sold				

You will note from the schedule that at no time does the Company have less than $65,000.00, and that at the end of the year the original investment is intact. It is for this reason that the plan adopted is called a conservative plan. One might figure that since $65,000.00 was always on hand the same work might have been done conservatively with only $35,000.00 capital, but this is a mistake. It is precisely this element of safety that makes this plan valuable. Suppose, for example, that there were very few sales until December, at which time orders should come for 300 machines, not to be paid for by the buyer until delivery, but for which the Radipho Company must pay cash. Or suppose the company building the Radipho should produce a thousand defective machines involving great

May	June	July	August	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
$	$	$	$	$	$	$	$
80,500.00	78,455.00	76,410.00	74,365.00	71,835.00	70,760.00	70,170.00	68,080.00
2,250.00	2,250.00	2,250.00	1,500.00	3,750.00	4,500.00	4,500.00	11,250.00
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
82,750.00	80,705.00	78,660.00	75,865.00	75,585.00	75,260.00	74,670.00	79,330.00
1,250.00	1,250.00	1,250.00	1,250.00	1,250.00	1,250.00	1,250.00	1,250.00
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
500.00	500.00	500.00	500.00	500.00	500.00	2,000.00	2,000.00
1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00
250.00	250.00	250.00	250.00	250.00	250.00	250.00	250.00
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,000.00
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
795.00	795.00	795.00	530.00	1,325.00	1,590.00	1,590.00	3,975.00
4,295.00	4,295.00	4,295.00	4,030.00	4,825.00	5,090.00	6,590.00	10,975.00
78,455.00	76,410.00	74,365.00	71,835.00	70,760.00	70,170.00	68,080.00	68,355.00
30	30	30	20	50	60	60	150

expense not only in exchanging and reinstalling machines, but also in actual refunds of the purchase price! Dozens of misfortunes like these can happen and constantly do happen, when a new article is being placed on the market.

LESSON 64

THE RADIO RECEIVER PROJECT—(Continued)

Steps in the Sale Process: You have been appointed salesmen for the Radipho Company. You have studied the various problems of incorporation, organization, budgeting of expenses, and organizing the sales force, that are connected with this project. You are now to plan the points in your selling talk.

You will not be given arguments in this lesson, but suggestions from which you must formulate all your arguments. These suggestions will be brief, for you have now learned the general steps in the sale process. The suggestions offered for your additional instruction will be mainly those that apply to the particular article you are selling—The Radipho radio receiver.

Gaining an Audience: The Radipho is an article of such novelty, so well advertised, and so well-known, that the difficulty of gaining an audience practically disappears.

Each person who sees the machine and becomes enthusiastic will be a walking advertisement for it. Care must be taken, therefore, in the separation of those who are interested. Some are prospective purchasers. Others, while not likely to become customers, are nevertheless valuable as advertising agents. The mere curiosity seeker should not be shut off. He is valuable but he is not as valuable as a prospective customer.

A different kind of talk must be given to the mere curiosity seeker from the talk that is given to the prospective buyer. Both talks must be carefully planned. To talk carelessly and without

a plan to those who are interested but not possible buyers is a serious error made by many salesmen. You should learn to analyze the reasons for the interests of such persons; to discover what those persons can say and will say to other persons; and to cleverly plan your talk to them so as to produce in their minds a change of thought that will lead them to speak favorably of his article to others who may be possible buyers.

This point is of such importance that two illustrations must be given here:

a—Mr. Jones, who is greatly interested in the Radipho, has no money. He is a chauffeur employed by a wealthy man. He is mechanically inclined, and understands the code used in radio telegraphy. The suggestion to Jones that his employer might be interested in buying a machine if he knew that Jones could not only operate it but translate the message would undoubtedly lead directly to a sale through Jones who has not money himself to buy a machine.

b—Miss Smith is a school teacher and is unable to buy a machine. The suggestion that radio receivers are being installed in public schools all over the United States will no doubt cause Miss Smith to bring the question to the attention of the principal of the school, or the directors.

In the beginning the curiosity seeker is a very valuable asset. You should secure from such persons the names of possible buyers. Nearly all salesmen fall down at this point. No selling talk should ever be given that does not conclude with an invitation for the prospective buyer, or even the mere curiosity seeker, to give you the names of others who are interested.

The salesman who *seems* to know by instinct where to find customers *does not find out by instinct.* His usual method is laborious, continuous, and habitual inquiry.

Gaining an audience has no terrors to the salesman of the Radipho. Let him grant an audience to everyone who desires it, not failing to inquire the names of others who may be interested. Instruct him also to plan regular hours to give Radipho concerts and exhibitions with a general invitation to attend to all who are interested.

Devise a form of blank for the names of prospects and others interested, remembering that these accumulated names and addresses are the property of the Radipho Company, must be reported on at least weekly, and must be preserved in a file for reference. The size and quality of the salesman's list of prospects is one of his most valuable assets. Skillful salesmen often fail because they do not appreciate the value of such a list as an aid to continuous effort.

SECURING ATTENTION: The problem of securing attention, like the problem of gaining an audience, nearly disappears in the sale of this article. After reviewing the usual means of securing attention, as explained in various parts of the text, but particularly in Lesson 34, make a list of a few such points as the following:

1. *Does Not Require Expert Knowledge:* The Radipho radio receiver is a scientific instrument the operation of which is mysterious to most people. The salesman should endeavor to make its operation easy to understand. His language should be clear; his ideas simple. There is danger of losing prospective customers by presenting the subject in a highly technical way. Be prepared to show the prospective customer how easy the operation of the machine really is.

2. *Easy to Learn the Scientific Basis of Radio:* Those who desire to learn the operation of the machine scientifically should not only be assured that this can be done but should be given the names of magazines and text books that treat the subject in a simple matter.

3. Demonstration of the work of this machine are greatly interfered with by conversations on the part of the listeners. The salesman should put a sign on the wall behind his machine requesting silence while the machine is being operated, and should request silence when beginning to operate the machine. The psychological effect of this silence is very great.

AROUSING INTEREST IN THE RADIPHO: This step in the sale, like the two preceding steps, is easy. The interest already exists

in the great majority of cases. It is this fact that makes the geting of an audience and attention easy.

It is of the utmost importance, however, to discover the *cause* of that interest, for the secret of creating desire and compelling action lies in the *cause of interest.*

The causes of interest in the Radipho are likely to be:

a—General interest in science.
b—Novelty and mystery of the instrument.
c—The wish to entertain one's friends at home.
d—Commercial possibilities of radio.
e—Use of the machine in one's business.
f—The wish to get a position in a radio company.
g—A plan to use the machine for advertising purposes.

In some cases you will know the cause of the buyer's interest before the selling talk begins. In most other cases the best way to discover the cause of interest is to *let the buyer talk.*

Creating Desire for the Radipho: You have now reached a step in the process of the sale that is not easy. As you already know, desire differs greatly from interest in the sense in which these words are used here. One may be greatly interested in something remote from him which he expects never to possess. What he desires, however, he connects with possession, at least in imagination. He may be interested in the moon and also in a Radipho radio receiver, but he cannot *desire* the former. The salesman who best creates desire is he who leads the prospective buyer to think favorably of *possessing* the article. *He thinks of the article in connection with his own interests.*

Picture the Radipho to the buyer as located in his home or office. Show him what it can do *for him,* remembering what you have discovered was the *cause of his interest.* Then plan your talk along the following lines:

a—If the cause of his interest is his scientific turn of mind, show him the developments in science toward which the radio is pointing.

b—If the novelty of the invention is the source of his interest, play upon his desire for immediate possession. Novelty and the interest it awakens, wear away quickly.

c—If he is interested in the machine as a means of entertainment, show him where he can find, in newspapers and elsewhere, programs of radio concerts. Tell him about "wireless entertainments" that have been given in private homes, and show him newspaper and magazine reports of such entertainments.

d—If he is interested in the commercial possibilities of the machine, give him an idea of its present rapid growth, read him the commercial messages that come over the wire, and tell him facts about the Radipho Company and other corporations now selling radio receivers. Compare the future of the Radipho radio receiver with the past history of the Western Union, the Bell Telephone Company, the various Phonograph Companies, etc.

e—If his interest is due to a wish to use the machine in his own business, ask him about his business and aid him in suggestions for his practical use of the Radipho. Many commercial establishments are now using radio instruments for sending and receiving.

f—If he wishes a position with a radio company, show him the magazine advertisements of radio schools and describe the field for employment on land and sea. All boats are equipped with wireless machines. The position of purser and radio operator are frequently combined.

g—If he wishes to use the machine for advertising purposes, he must be sold quickly. The machine will soon become too common for this use. You must tell him this frankly, even though you lose the sale. Absolute honesty is basic in successful salesmanship.

After studying the above, add to the list of *causes of interest,* stating your method of turning each cause of *interest* into a *desire* to possess.

Compelling Action: Methods of compelling action are widely different, in the case of the Radipho, from the usual methods. At present such instruments are really hard to secure. The demand exceeds the supply. The advantages of this situation are obvious. Some of them are:

a—The salesman takes orders for future delivery. This is always easier than to take orders that must be paid for at once.

b—Others want to get machines, and delivery must depend upon date of order. The buyer is likely to act more quickly on this account.

c—An undersupply indicates a forthcoming raise in price.

d—Public excitement caused by the rapid growth of this industry as well as by the scarcity of machines, makes the task of getting action an easier one that it could otherwise be.

As stated at the beginning of this lesson, the suggestions here must be considered in addition to the basic rules for securing audience, attention, interest, desire and action which you have studied in this course, particularly in Lessons 33 to 37 inclusive; and this Lesson requires an application of those rules not by the author, but by *YOU*. The details presented by the author are suggestions, to which, if you are to stand the test of this chapter, *you must add many ideas of your own*. The exercise for this lesson makes that requirement.

Student's Exercise for Lesson 64

1. Write two causes of interest in the Radipho that are *not* in the list given in this lesson.

2. State what would be your method of arousing desire in the above two cases.

LESSON 65

GENERAL REVIEW

The last lesson in this text consists of a general review of the subject of salesmanship as it has been presented.

Part I

We showed first (Lesson 1) the importance of salesmanship to all people. It does not find its application merely among professional salesmen. All people need it. All occupations require

it. It is always best exercised by those naturally adapted to it, but it can be learned; and often by studying it, those naturally adaped to it may discover more aptitude than they realized they possessed. It is taught by great companies everywhere. The salesman furnishes the steam in every business boiler, and successful corporations have found that study increases selling ability.

We showed next (Lessons 2 and 3) that psychology, the study of the mind, is the basis of successful salesmanship, and that what the socalled natural-born salesman means when he says he "sizes up" a man or a situation, is really a science that he understands more or less imperfectly by nature, that he can improve, and others can acquire, by study.

Then (in Lessons 4 to 6) we presented methods of training the five senses, the avenues to the mind. These methods were not theoretical but practical. They consisted of exercises to be done, which if practiced frequently by the student for several years, would produce physical and mental alertness of extraordinary value. This book should be kept for years if for no other reason than the constant *re-reading and practice of those three lessons.*

In the next Lesson (Lesson 7) the essential fundamental of honesty in salesmanship was presented, and the reasons for it were explained. Part I concluded (Lesson 8) with the outlines of the science of salesmanship and a classification of sales as to simplicity.

Part II

In Part II we analyzed the customer, and presented (Lessons 9 and 10) means for analyzing his temperament—"sizing him up," —particularly as to whether he is controlled mainly by *reason, feeling* or *chance.* In Lesson 11 we discussed those who buy for personal use as compared with those who buy as dealers, or as professional buyers for others; and showed (Lesson 12) what and why the salesman should know about his customer's business.

Part III

Then in Part III we analyzed the thing sold, whether merchandise or services, devoting three lessons (Lessons 13 to 15) to this; discussed the necessity of the salesman knowing certain facts about the house for which he works (Lesson 16) and about his competitor's organization (Lesson 17); and described (Lesson 18) the extreme importance of salesmanship in selling one's personal services.

Part IV

Part IV contains a study of the salesman himself, his personal qualities and methods of improving them. Aside from Lessons 4 to 6, this section is more important than any other to one who studies salesmanship for the general benefit it will be to him in other occupations than that of selling goods. Lesson 19 deals with efficiency and character; Lesson 20, with health; Lesson 21, with personal appearance, correct speech, and general education; Lessons 22 to 24, with mental and spiritual qualities; Lesson 25, with the results of these qualities and their relation to success. Lessons 26 to 32 are of particular importance, showing as they do, the relation to success of *habit* (Lesson 26), the *will* (Lesson 27), *memory* (Lessons 28 and 29), *imagination* (Lessons 30 and 31), and the powers of *suggestion and auto-suggestion* (Lesson 32), all of which are treated in simple language from the standpoint of modern psychology, with many practical suggestions for strengthening and improving these mighty factors of mental efficiency.

Part V

In Part V, having laid the foundation, we proceeded to the study of the process of the sale, audience (Lesson 33), attention (Lesson 34), interest (Lesson 35), desire (Lesson 36), and action (Lessons 37 and 38). How to answer objections is treated in Lesson 39.

Part VI

Part VI deals with a number of additional and supplemental considerations not treated previously in connection with the process of the sale. The selection of prospects and planning of trips is presented in Lesson 40; and in Lessons 41 to 46, the selling talk is analyzed, followed by the discussion of such supplemental topics as the treatment of a customer after a sale, the handling of samples, the care of records, the study of credits, and the causes of business failures, all of which the salesman must know. Lessons 47, 48 and 49 deal with the question of collections, showing the similarity in process between a collection and a sale, and thus reviewing the selling process.

Part VII

Part VII is devoted to sales projects. Lessons 50 and 51 contain an outline and discussion of the sales manual issued by a great corporation. Lessons 52 to 55 outline and discuss the establishment of a school paper by the students. Lessons 56 to 60 contain suggestions for an actual sales campaign of one week to be conducted by the students. Lessons 61 to 64 present the outlines of a final project of considerable importance—the sale of a radio receiver.

Conclusion

It is fitting to conclude this text by emphasizing certain general statements that are as true of all other lines as of salesmanship.

Scienific study cannot take the place of hard work. A thoroughly schooled man who is lazy, has fewer chances of success than an unskilled salesman who works. That salesman has a tremendous advantage who begins the day on time, with his work carefully planned in advance; who goes after business earnestly; who keeps records faithfully; and who works hard to cover his

territory and to satisfy every customer. Inspiration has no chance against perspiration. *Genius is powerless in a contest with hard work.* It is only when the two are combined in one person that the brilliance of genius can really shine.

But hard work without scientific knowledge is ineffective. There is a mighty difference between the man who merely lays bricks and the man who lays bricks scientifically; and the salesman who *works* hard without *thinking* hard is doomed. Edison, as a newsboy on the Grand Trunk Railway, might have worked hard and have been still a train employe. Edison thinking, means the progress of the world.